

1-1-1969

Some relationships between specified values of student groups and interscholastic athletics in selected high schools.

Michael Feldman

University of Massachusetts Amherst

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1

Recommended Citation

Feldman, Michael, "Some relationships between specified values of student groups and interscholastic athletics in selected high schools." (1969). *Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014*. 2457.
https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1/2457

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014 by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. For more information, please contact scholarworks@library.umass.edu.

SOME RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SPECIFIED VALUES OF
STUDENT GROUPS AND INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS
IN SELECTED HIGH SCHOOLS

A Dissertation Presented

By

MICHAEL FELDMAN

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in
partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Major Subject: Administration

Copyright by

MICHAEL FELDMAN

1969

All Rights Reserved

SOME RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SPECIFIED VALUES OF
STUDENT GROUPS AND INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS
IN SELECTED HIGH SCHOOLS

A Dissertation

By

MICHAEL FELDMAN

Approved as to style and content by:

William E. Shippick
(Chairman of Committee)

[Signature]
(Head of Department)

[Signature]
(Member)

[Signature]
(Member)

January, 1969

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Sincere appreciation is expressed to the many people who have helped to make this study possible. In particular, recognition is given to the members of the author's dissertation committee. The members included Drs. Albert Anthony and William Wolf, both of whom contributed valuable suggestions which were incorporated into this study. Special thanks is extended to Dr. William Griffiths, Chairman of the Committee, who gave freely of his time and guided the author to the completion of this study.

Further acknowledgments are due to the author's parents who instilled in him the desire to learn and gave him continuing encouragement throughout his education.

Final appreciation is extended to the author's wife Caroline, whose sincere understanding and sacrifice made this entire undertaking possible.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	viii
Chapter	
I. A DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY	1
Introduction	
Problem Statement	
Hypotheses	
Assumptions and Limitations	
Definition of Important Terms	
II. RELATED RESEARCH	15
Character and Value Studies	
Interscholastic Athletics in the Schools	
Sportsmanship Studies	
Opinions from Leaders in Athletics	
III. PROCEDURES	40
Population and Sample	
General Design	
Instruments	
IV. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA	49
Treatment of the Data	
Step One	
Step Two	
Step Three	
Step Four	
Step Five	
Step Six	
V. FINDINGS	80
Discussion of Step One	
Discussion of Step Two	
Discussion of Step Three	
Discussion of Step Four	
Discussion of Step Five	
Discussion of Step Six	

Chapter	Page
VI. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS . . .	100
Problem Statement	
Hypotheses	
Related Research	
Procedures	
Findings	
Conclusions	
Recommendations	
APPENDIXES	114
BIBLIOGRAPHY	160

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Student Membership by Subgroups	42
2. Mean Percent of Test Scores by Group--Sportsman- ship Value Inventory	53
3. Summary of Analysis of Variance Test of Mean Scores for Treatment--Sportsmanship Value Inventory	54
4. Newman-Keuls Modified Q Test--Sportsmanship Value Inventory	55
5. Mean Percent of Test Scores by Group--Societal Value Inventory	58
6. Summary of Analysis of Variance Test of Mean Scores for Treatment--Societal Value Inventory	59
7. Newman-Keuls Modified Q Test--Societal Value Inventory	60
8. Newman-Keuls Modified Q Test--Sportsmanship Value Inventory	64
9. Newman-Keuls Modified Q Test--Societal Value Inventory	66
10. Mean Percent of Test Scores by School--Sports- manship Value Inventory	71
11. Summary of Analysis of Variance Test of Mean Scores for Treatment--Sportsmanship Value Inventory	72
12. Newman-Keuls Modified Q Test--Sportsmanship Value Inventory	73
13. Mean Percent of Test Scores by School--Societal Value Inventory	74
14. Summary of Analysis of Variance Test of Mean Scores for Treatment--Societal Value Inventory	75
15. Newman-Keuls Modified Q Test--Societal Value Inventory	76
16. Relationship Between Total School Expenditures on Interscholastic Athletics and Desirability of School Sportsmanship Values	79
17. Summary of Findings	81

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure	Page
1. Interaction of Two Variables--Sportsmanship Value Inventory	67
2. Interaction of Two Variables--Societal Value Inventory	69

CHAPTER I

A DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

Introduction

Since the inception of interscholastic athletics in public secondary schools, countless claims have been advanced on its behalf, in most instances in the absence of proper documentation. Justification for interscholastic athletics usually has been more or less subjective and based on assumed benefits derived by the individual, the school, and the community. Among the individual benefits claimed have been those of a physical, mental, moral, and social nature.¹ The present study, however, attempts only to determine relationships between specified values of student groups and interscholastic athletics.

Many of the qualities attributed to interscholastic athletics pertain to traits of character. Such traits include individual courage, self-control, self-discipline, responsibility, and dependability.² A number of claims suggest that interscholastic athletics serves as well as influences students in several ways, some of which include doing one's best under difficult circumstances, promoting

¹George E. Shepard and Richard E. Jamerson, Interscholastic Athletics (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953), p. 4.

²Ibid.

lessons of good sportsmanship, and imparting ideals of public spirit and good citizenship.³ Other assertions maintain that interschool competition is conducive to the formation of attitudes that exemplify fine living and self-discipline and leads to fostering the development of desirable qualities (self-sacrifice, team work, loyalty, and devotion to a cause).⁴ A most often quoted rationale contends that athletics provide many lifelike situations which have meaning and purpose to the competitor and which contribute to his development as a good citizen and an individual of ethical character.⁵

Most of the claims forwarded on behalf of interscholastic athletics have been based on the assumption that personnel of high caliber and enlightened leadership have guided programs of interschool competition; even given that assumption, however, scholarly research is still lacking to substantiate the aforementioned contentions. It is for this reason that the present study has focused on one of the several areas often designated as recipients of positive influence from interscholastic athletics; i.e., student societal and sportsmanship values.

The societal values which have been treated and tested for are those generally accepted by school faculties

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid., p. 6.

⁵Ibid., p. 10.

as values to be sought for by students. They include honesty, responsibility, moral courage, loyalty, unselfishness, and friendliness. Student approval and utilization of these values constitute part of the objectives of the school in that the root of good behavior is often the acceptance of the values of one's culture.⁶

In an effort to understand the role values play in society, psychologists have attempted to define operationally the concept of value. To some, values are concepts concerned with the individual's orientation toward aspects of his personal and impersonal environment and toward himself.⁷ To others, values indicate preference and are characterized by a striving, directional, and dynamic character, having much less concern with specific content than with style, orientation, and overall purpose.⁸ Lewin and his followers speak of values as influencing and guiding behavior, determining which types of behavior have positive or negative valence, but not having the character of a goal.⁹

⁶Lee J. Cronbach, Educational Psychology (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World Co., 1954), p. 27.

⁷Marian R. Yarrow, "The Measurement of Children's Attitudes and Values," chap. xvi in Handbook of Research Methods in Child Development, ed. by Paul H. Musser (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1960), p. 646.

⁸Seth Arsenian, "Panel Reactions," in Values in Sports (Washington, D.C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1963), p. 20.

⁹Kurt Lewin et al., "Level of Aspiration," in Personality and Behavior Disorders, ed. by J. Hunt (New York: Ronald, 1944), p. 14.

In light of the present research, the latter two concepts of value are most acceptable; the first, on the other hand, is more descriptive of the concept of attitude.

In terms of the present study, the values incorporated by secondary students are deemed extremely important in influencing student present and future behavior; as previously implied, student values often determine which of many answers to a problem is regarded as best. It is for this and similar reasons that school authorities recommend that teachers, regardless of subject matter, infuse into their courses and transmit to their students favorable societal values. Some curriculum areas, such as social studies and athletics, however, lend themselves more readily to inculcating values than do others.

In observing the impact and importance values can have on students and society, by acknowledging the unsubstantiated claims of interscholastic athletics, and accepting the school's responsibility in both of these areas, the researcher has attempted to determine if there is any relationship between specified values of student groups and a segment of the school curriculum--interscholastic athletics.

To recapitulate, those persons who are active in the leadership of athletics claim that athletics are responsible for many of the attitudinal and value formations that occur among various subgroups of the student body, especially those subgroups which participate directly in interscholastic

athletics. Because the efforts to develop athletic programs are costly and time-consuming, both educators and laymen often raise questions pertaining to the worth of interscholastic athletics. Some of these questions refer to the following concerns: (1) Do significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values exist among student groups associated with interscholastic athletics in varying degrees? (2) Do significant differences in the desirability of societal values exist among student groups associated with interscholastic athletics in varying degrees? (3) Do programs of interscholastic athletics foster a positive transference of training (values) to the day-to-day activities of participating students.

Problem Statement

The teachers of athletics believe that a fundamental purpose of interscholastic athletics is to develop desirable student sportsmanship and societal values. Consequently, the researcher's primary inquiry is: Are such desirable values developed and, if so, are they carried into day-to-day activity among the following high school senior males:

- (1) varsity participants in interscholastic athletics,
- (2) spectators of interscholastic athletics,

those students who have attended more than one-third of all their school's (spectator type) athletic contests as spectators,

- (3) nonspectators of interscholastic athletics, those students who have attended less than one-third of all their school's (spectator type) athletic contests as spectators.

In essence, this study is concerned with the differences in values among student groups associated with interscholastic athletic programs in varying degrees and manners in the school environment. Based upon the test results, the researcher will be able to infer whether or not interscholastic athletics influences desirable sportsmanship and societal values among specified student groups.

In resolving the preceding relationships, the researcher examined the nature and character of values, the degree to which students were able to learn or change values at the secondary school level, and the many attributes accorded to interscholastic athletics.

Significance of the Problem

The significance of this problem has been substantiated and validated by the growing concern of school administrators, school board members, and parents over the increasing amount of financial effort and time devoted to interscholastic athletics. Questions have been raised over the relative value of such athletics to students and whether the money and efforts expended on interscholastic athletics have been disproportionate to the benefits received by students.

Other questions have been concerned with whether or not the participants in interscholastic athletics are the only students to develop so-called added values (sportsmanship and societal), be they positive or negative; and if these values are worth the time, effort, and financial burden that is imposed upon the school system.

As one of the primary purposes of this study is to enable school administrators to make more objective and enlightened educational decisions in regard to interscholastic athletic programs, it is hoped that the researcher's findings will yield meaningful insight in contributing to this end. In specific terms, it is expected that the findings of this study will enable secondary school administrators to be in a more advantageous position to assess student benefits derived from interscholastic athletic programs. With such added knowledge at hand, administrators should be more able to organize athletic programs in proper perspective in terms of program objectives, personnel policies, finances, and public relations. An impact on the teaching and coaching of athletics should also follow from the analyzed data as teachers and coaches should be able to correct deficiencies if present programs are not producing the desired results.

Hypotheses

The overarching objective of this study is to

determine the nature and extent of differences in selected student values, if any, among student groups associated with interscholastic athletics in varying degrees. In order to expedite this intention, the researcher tested the following null hypotheses:

1. There are no significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values between the athletic participant and spectator groups.
2. There are no significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values between the athletic participant and nonspectator groups.
3. There are no significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values between the spectator and nonspectator groups.
4. There are no significant differences in the desirability of societal values between the athletic participant and spectator groups.
5. There are no significant differences in the desirability of societal values between the athletic participant and nonspectator groups.
6. There are no significant differences in the desirability of societal values between the spectator and nonspectator groups.
7. There is no positive, significant correlation between the societal and sportsmanship values of athletic participants.

8. There is no positive, significant correlation between the societal and sportsmanship values of spectators.
9. There is no positive, significant correlation between the societal and sportsmanship values of nonspectators.
10. The socioeconomic level of students does not influence significant differences in the desirability of student sportsmanship values among student groups (athletic participants, spectators, and nonspectators).
11. The socioeconomic level of students does not influence significant differences in the desirability of student societal values among student groups (athletic participants, spectators, and nonspectators).
12. There are no significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values among the five test schools.
13. There are no significant differences in the desirability of societal values among the five test schools.
14. There is no positive and significant correlation among the five test schools between the desirability of student sportsmanship values and the support each school provides in the form of number of coaches per sport, number of sports offered, and funds budgeted for interscholastic athletics per senior male.

Assumptions and Limitations

It should be recognized that many student values, whether of a societal or athletic nature, are developed

independently of the school environment. Home, peer group, and neighborhood influences play major roles in developing the way individuals view and perceive their total environment. The school, however, also plays a significant role in developing the effective areas of individuals and must share the responsibility for the total development of its students. It is highly doubtful, however, that any study could isolate entirely the school's influence on an individual or attribute the degree to which an individual's growth is dependent upon the school. The scarcity of knowledge in this area is partially due to the multitude of variables in an individual's environment--all of which contribute to his growth. It is suspected by many, however, that individual values can and do change from the influences of secondary school; and it is hopeful that the results of this study might uncover some of these changes.

As in the present study, the degree to which student values in sportsmanship behavior and in day-to-day activities can be solely attributed to interscholastic athletics is limited. Nevertheless, in terms of the desirability of societal and sportsmanship values, this study was able to reveal the various relationships that existed between student groups and interscholastic athletics. In addition, tests of significance were able to determine if significant differences existed between subgroups of the student body. This enabled the researcher to accept or reject the formulated

null hypotheses at both the .01 and .05 levels of confidence --the significant levels for this study.

As indicated, it was the intention of the researcher to uncover the statuses of many of the value relationships that existed between specified student groups and interscholastic athletics. In no way, however, were these relationships to be interpreted as cause-and-effect results. The researcher, however, has reserved the right to formulate his own inferences based upon the resultant relationships.

In structuring the research design, the researcher has chosen to treat the six value measurements of the societal value inventory as a composite score. This has reflected students' general behavior on the selected values as opposed to their behavior on each specific value.

A final limitation of this study has resulted because of the socioeconomic composition of the test population. Approximately all of the test students were members of one of three socioeconomic classifications--upper middle, lower middle, and upper lower. The upper and lower ends of the socioeconomic spectrum were not represented, largely because of the geographic location of the test schools. As a result, the spectrum was narrowed and opportunities were thus limited to observe and compare student test performances on the basis of a wide range of socioeconomic levels.

Definition of Important Terms

In order to understand the conducted research in its entirety, an explanation of the following terminology as used in the context of this study is deemed appropriate:

1. Interscholastic athletics--organized competition among varsity teams of different high schools in designated sports.

2. Athletic participants--senior male students who are members of their school's highest-level athletic team which represents the school in interscholastic competition in designated sports; students designated as athletic participants will have engaged in at least three seasons of one sport, or one season of three different sports, or any combination of sports participation totaling three seasons.

3. Nonspectators--senior male students who have attended less than one-third of the spectator-type athletic contests or less than fifteen contests of their school during the past academic year.

4. Spectators--senior male students who have attended one-third or more of the spectator-type athletic contests or at least fifteen contests of their school during the past academic year.

5. Student sportsmanship values--general preferences and beliefs held by students which guide their behavior in athletic competition.

6. Student societal values--general preferences and beliefs held by students which guide their behavior in day-to-day activity; societal values to be treated in the text are those generally accepted by school faculties as values to be sought for by students.

7. Responsibility--the individual who shows responsibility fulfills tasks expected of him; he accepts duties voluntarily and seeks out opportunities for service; he is punctual and willing to face difficulties in carrying out what is expected of him; he shows these qualities at home, in school, in his relationship to peers, and to employers.¹⁰

8. Loyalty--the person who makes sacrifices for an institution, a group of people, or an individual with whom the subject feels identified, or with whom the subject feels a common bond; to act for the best interests of such an institution, group of people, or individual, even at the cost of personal embarrassment or hardship.¹¹

9. Honesty--the person who is characterized by integrity and straightforwardness in conduct, thought, and speech; he is one free from fraud, and considered truthful and upright in his behavior.¹²

10. Friendliness--the person who acts kindly or amicably

¹⁰Robert Havighurst and Hilda Taba, Adolescent Character and Personality (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949), p. 247.

¹¹Ibid., p. 5.

¹²Ibid., p. 265.

to others with freedom from hostility; he values friendships and is willing to defend or help others in difficult situations.¹³

11. Moral courage--the person who in the face of extreme difficulty or self-risk will stand up for what he deems to be right or what he believes to be ethical behavior.¹⁴

12. Unselfishness--an individual who is not overly concerned with personal self-interest, especially at the expense of others, but rather will take others into consideration when making decisions.

13. Socioeconomic level--an individual's standing on the three criteria--occupation, educational attainment, and family income; final socioeconomic class designation is based on the average score of the three criteria (class designations: upper middle, lower middle, and upper lower).¹⁵

14. Desirability--the degree of acceptance or worthiness of the values of student groups as determined by scores on the instruments utilized in this study.

¹³Ibid., p. 269.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 271.

¹⁵Max Rutzick, Working Paper Number 15: Methodology and Scores of Socio Economic Status (Washington, D.C.: Bureau of the Census, 1965), p. 3.

CHAPTER II

RELATED RESEARCH

In examining the literature extensively, no evidence of a comprehensive study on the specific problems outlined above has been found. There exists, however, a great wealth of contributory literature that is pertinent to the problem area. Such related literature can add to the background understanding of the concepts treated in the present study. Related research reported in this section will include and be representative of experimental and survey studies conducted in the field of education and athletics. Written opinions of leaders in athletics will also be reviewed as they relate to the problem. The review of research will encompass four areas: (1) character and values studies, (2) interscholastic athletics in the schools, (3) sportsmanship studies, and (4) opinions from leaders in athletics.

Character and Value Studies

The present study utilizes two concepts--values and interscholastic athletics. This section of the related research will concern itself with character and value studies as they relate to the specified research.

In studying the nature and character of values in the context of the present study, the researcher was primarily

interested in learning whether the values possessed by individuals were: (1) unchangeable and absolute by the first year of high school and (2) completely influenced and shaped solely by the family. If the two preceding queries were answerable in the affirmative, it would have suggested that interscholastic athletics could not have any influence on the values possessed by students. This, in turn, would have destroyed the arguments offered by leaders in athletics who have maintained that interscholastic athletics were partly responsible for the value formations of participants.

The following group of studies pertains to the nature of values and attempts to answer the two points brought forth above.

Havighurst and Taba have examined factors influencing character and its development. They have both contended that the child learns values from two general sources: (1) from the adults who have prestige in his eyes and (2) from his own age group.¹⁶ Havighurst readily admits, however, that the most important single influence on values or character is the home. Both authors, nevertheless, have maintained that not only through the home but also through the school, the church, the youth organizations, the recreational agencies, and the informal peer culture of the children's own world have values and moral standards been taught to boys and girls

¹⁶Havighurst and Taba, Adolescent Character and Personality, p. 28.

by their parents, teachers, and other adults in positions of prestige and by leaders of their own age groups.¹⁷

Taba has added to her position on character and value development by suggesting that "the development of character, as is true of any socializing process, takes place in an emotional context and in relation to other personalities; that the by-play of feelings and emotions has a profound influence on the nature of moral beliefs and their efficacy in influencing conduct; that good emotional adjustment is, therefore, an important prerequisite for desirable character development in adolescence."¹⁸

Peck and Havighurst in their studies have strongly emphasized the importance of the family in character development and have noted the stableness of character from age ten on.¹⁹ They have contended that case studies have suggested that, whatever pattern of moral behavior and character structure a child has shown by ten years of age, he is far more likely than not to display it into late adolescence and for the rest of his life.²⁰ The door was left open for change, however, when the authors noted that prolonged, deep-going influences experienced by the individual could cause transition.²¹

¹⁷Ibid., p. 45.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 96.

¹⁹Robert Havighurst and Robert Peck, The Psychology of Character Development (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960), p. 157.

²⁰Ibid.

²¹Ibid.

Peck and Havighurst themselves have conceded that the school is a laboratory for the learning of moral and intellectual characteristics and that the people outside the immediate family might influence the moral character of a child through their personal relations with him.²²

Further evidence of the changeability of values has come from Havighurst and Neugarten in Society and Education as they have advocated that the school milieu and peer group norms could significantly modify the effects of social class in influencing the adolescent's values.²³

Louis Rathes et al. have drawn on Benjamin Bloom's findings in Stability and Change in Human Characteristics. These findings have suggested that environmental factors have the greatest effect on an individual at the time when the quality in question has been in its most rapid period of growth.²⁴ The authors have contended that values are in their most rapid growth between the years of ten to sixteen, thereby implying that environmental factors during these years have strong influences on an individual's values.²⁵

²²Ibid., p. 152.

²³Robert Havighurst and Bernice Neugarten, Society and Education (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1967), p. 196.

²⁴Benjamin Bloom, Stability and Change in Human Characteristics (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964), p. 210.

²⁵Louis E. Rathes, Merrill Harmin, and Sidney B. Simon, Values and Teaching (Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1966), pp. 222-223.

Raths further has indicated that family influence on children's values has been weakening and that children have become exposed more to other sources for their value formations.²⁶ He has substantiated this claim by acknowledging the growing amount of family instability caused by broken homes, working mothers, the character of the father's job, family mobility, and the new means of mass communication. He has summarized his position on value formation by acknowledging "values as constantly being related to the experiences that shape them and test them."

They are not for any one person, so much hard and fast verities as they are the results of hammering out a style of life in a certain set of surroundings. After a sufficient amount of hammering, certain patterns of evaluating and behaving tend to develop. Certain things are treated as right, or desirable, or worthy. These tend to become our values.²⁷

In an attempt to determine whether the values of college students changed during their four years of study, Campbell administered the "Study of Values" inventory to 200 subjects equally distributed over the college years.²⁸ She concluded that there were no appreciable changes in students' values during the four-year college experience. There were, however, highly significant differences in the means of the values themselves. This suggested a highly significant patterning of student values which depended very likely upon the

²⁶Ibid., pp. 15-18.

²⁷Ibid., p. 28.

²⁸Doris Campbell, "Differences of Values Among College Students at Different Class Levels" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Florida, 1962).

actual objectives of the institutions studied and which depended especially upon the culture of the community or area from which the students came.

Arsenian, on the other hand, in presenting a paper on "Development of Values with Special Reference to College Years," commented on several value studies which have revealed value changes.²⁹ For example, with reference to Jacob's study, "Changing Values in College," Arsenian advocated that "values can and do change on the college level, but for them to do so there must be a consistently stimulating, supporting, and invigorating climate."³⁰

In an effort to compile studies dealing with changes in attitudes and values, Webster, Freedman, and Heist combined to write a paper entitled "Personality Changes in College Students."³¹ Their results which follow tend to conform to common-sense expectation.

Students change in many ways during college. Usually there are increases in the amount of information possessed about various topics and in degrees of skill in performing certain tasks. There are changes in interests, which are often accompanied by changed attitudes toward the self and world. And in some cases there are

²⁹Seth Arsenian, "Development of Values With Special Reference to College Years" in Values in Sports (Washington, D.C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 1963), pp. 51-60.

³⁰Ibid., p. 57.

³¹Harold Webster, Mervin Freedman, and Paul Heist, "Personality Changes in College Students," in The American College, ed. by Nevitt Sanford (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1962), p. 811.

more fundamental personality changes, accompanied by the emergence of new values.³²

In reexamining the two queries put forth at the beginning of this section, we are now able to formulate responses in light of the present study. Substantial evidence has been brought forth supporting the changeability of individuals' values at different ages when they are exposed to various influences. Evidence of how individuals outside the family can influence and change the values of others has also been established.

Leaders in athletics, in defending their position, have maintained that programs within interscholastic athletics possess all of those factors which are necessary to influence and possibly to change individuals' values in a positive manner. These factors include adult models, peer group associations, an emotional context, and adults in positions of prestige.

The exposure and accessibility of individuals to outside influences and the changeability of values during high school, be they positive or negative, lends added significance to the objectives of this study.

Interscholastic Athletics in the Schools

From the viewpoint of many students and athletic personnel, interscholastic athletics takes on an important role

³²Ibid.

in the school environment. The following group of studies tends to reinforce this view.

In recognizing the importance of an emotional context for character development and value change, as similarly suggested by Taba, Jamerson and Shepard have advocated on behalf of interscholastic athletics that athletics occupy a strategic position among the school subjects for guiding and modifying the emotions.³³ Additionally, they have contended that the good teacher or coach has opportunities to observe the individual in action, to commend socially acceptable behavior, and to correct and counsel with those whose responses were not of a desirable type.³⁴ They have maintained that in such an emotionalized atmosphere there is real opportunity to encourage the development of such qualities as sportsmanship, sociability, self-control, self-discipline, cooperation, leadership, and followership.

Part of the rationale for many of the aforementioned claims is based on the unique position interscholastic athletics has in the school environment. James Coleman, in a study, has referred to this position and has reinforced it by stating that "athletic teams provide a basis for intensive and prolonged association, more than any other activity in

³³George E. Shepard and Richard E. Jamerson, Interscholastic Athletics (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953), p. 6.

³⁴Ibid., p. 9.

school."³⁵ With such associations it is indeed possible that substantial influence could be exerted on athletic participants and possibly nonparticipants as well.

In another study by Coleman entitled Adolescent Society, the implication was brought forth that the interscholastic nature of athletic competition directed enormous energy and enthusiasm toward athletics and athletes.³⁶ He maintained that, because of the existence of interscholastic athletics, the student bodies of high schools have undergone multiple attitudinal changes with resulting changes in behavior. He added that significant student behavioral and attitudinal differences have been observed and measured between schools which have interscholastic athletics and those which have not.

It was the contention of Coleman that, whatever the effects of the school curriculum, they were overbalanced, especially for freshmen and sophomores, by the effects of sports and by adolescent culture's focus on athletic events. In support of this contention, Coleman, through the use of questionnaires, uncovered a number of relationships between athletes and the student body with its various subgroups. These included (1) the identification with or emulation of

³⁵James Coleman, Adolescents and the Schools (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1965), p. 40.

³⁶James Coleman, Adolescent Society (New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1961), pp. 143-163.

well-known athletes by undergraduate members of the school; (2) the wish of students to be remembered as athletes rather than brilliant students or merely students in general; (3) the acceptance of athletes into the elite student groups in preference to other types of students; (4) the attainment of the highest score on such questions as number of friends, popularity with girls, being a member of the crowd, and being liked was obtained first by the category of scholar athlete, followed by athlete, nonstudious scholar, studious scholar, lady's man, and student in general; (5) the function athletics have in providing the initial focal or starting point around which the freshman class centers its attention; (6) the mass media available are attended to less by star athletes than students in general; and (7) the avenue for attaining status, recognition, and success in the eyes of the student body is easiest through athletics.

Another attitudinal change experienced by students and stressed by Coleman concerned freshmen and sophomores. It was observed that during the summer vacations, when there were no interscholastic athletics, students' desires to be seen as brilliant students appeared; with the start of school, however, being seen as athletes became more important.

Coleman's rationale for some of the above behavior was explained by the circumstance that interscholastic athletics was almost the only means a school has of generating internal cohesion and identification, for athletics

constituted the only activities in which the school participated as a unit. The athletes' statures increased because they were doing something for the school, the community, and the student body.

The present study differs in direction from Coleman's. While he was concerned about the status of the athlete in high school society, the present study deals with differences in societal and sportsmanship values among student groups associated with interscholastic athletic programs in varying degrees and manners.

Sportsmanship Studies

One of the more frequent and popular expressions in support of interscholastic athletics is that it inculcates good sportsmanship and moral habits among its participants. Henry Link elaborates on this point by suggesting that sportsmanship is probably the clearest and most popular expression of morals.³⁷ The following group of experimental and descriptive studies more or less focuses on sportsmanship as it relates to athletics.

In an attempt to analyze the sportsmanship attitudes of college students, Kistler initiated a pilot study in 1954.³⁸ His premise suggested that attitudes held about

³⁷Henry C. Link, The Rediscovery of Morals (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1947), p. 7.

³⁸Joy Kistler, "What Do We Know About the Attitudes

behavior in specific situations in sports were fundamentally and inherently tied up with sportsmanship. The major portion of the data used to support his generalizations which follow was secured from male students enrolled in the basic physical education classes at Louisiana State University.

The technique used in gathering the data consisted of presenting ten specific sport situations with the behavior of the participants described; the students were then asked if they approved of the indicated behavior.

It appeared that one of the objectives of this study was to ascertain how former high school athletic participants compared to nonparticipants in regard to sportsmanship attitudes. His results showed that the athletic participants had poorer sportsmanship attitudes as defined in the study than did the nonathletic participants.

In analyzing the results, Kistler maintained that "experience in athletics as now conducted apparently makes for poorer standards of sportsmanship."³⁹

The present study is concerned with the results of Kistler's work but goes beyond its scope in several ways. Kistler's subjects consisted of male college students enrolled in physical education classes at one university, whereas the

Which People Hold Regarding Behavior in Specific Situations Occurring in Sports?" (unpublished pilot study, Louisiana State University, 1954), pp. 1-5.

³⁹Ibid., p. 5.

present study involves high school male seniors enrolled in several secondary schools. Differences in the student age groups of the two studies is also a factor as "attitudes do change and are strengthened and weakened by the course of inner development and by the experiences of life."⁴⁰ In further contrast the present study is concerned with three subgroups of the student body as opposed to the two subgroups (athletes and nonathletes) studied by Kistler. Examination of the degree of correlation which exists between the sportsmanship and the selected societal values of students in the three subgroups has also been undertaken in the present study.

In an investigation similar to the one performed by Kistler, Robert McAfee conducted a study of 857 sixth, seventh, and eighth grade boys in situations commonly encountered in junior high school physical education.⁴¹ The study revealed a significant difference at the .05 level of confidence between the sportsmanship attitude of the various grades. McAfee concluded that sportsmanship attitudes of boys become progressively poorer from the sixth through the eighth grades and suggested a need to revise the methods used in teaching sportsmanship.

⁴⁰Edward L. Thorndike, The Psychology of Wants, Interests, and Attitudes (New York: Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1935), p. 217.

⁴¹Robert McAfee, "Sportsmanship Attitudes of Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Grade Boys," Research Quarterly, XXVI (March, 1955), p. 120.

The McAfee study primarily concerned itself with the physical education program as opposed to the interscholastic program as proposed in the present study. The present study deals with a different population and goes beyond the scope of the McAfee study.

In using a sample interview survey of 124 coaches and a review of literature, Laughter indicated that the existing societal environment has shaped present-day sports.⁴² He suggested that, due to community interest in sports, exploitation of sports programs has become prevalent. He also contended that the commercial values of athletics have been the source of many undesirable sports and athletic practices. His study revealed that many athletic authorities do acknowledge that some sports are practiced on a lower level than is consistent with the ideals of sportsmanship. Such practices have produced conflicts between ethical codes and practices of various sports which have resulted in a weakening and distortion of values. Laughter concluded by advocating that the spectacular elements of sports have been emphasized to the detriment of positive character values.

A study conducted by Kehr attempted to reveal whether or not participation or nonparticipation in organized Little League Baseball affected the sportsmanship scores of a

⁴²Robert J. Laughter, "Socio-Psychological Aspects of the Development of Athletic Practices and Sports Ethics" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1963).

selected group of boys.⁴³ Experimental and control groups were formed as follows: Group I, Little League Baseball players; Group II, boys who failed the Little League tryouts; Group III, boys who had never tried out in a highly organized sports program. The boys were again divided into two sub-groups constituting twenty eleven-year-olds and twenty twelve-year-olds. The McAfee Preference Record was given to each boy before and after the league season. It was concluded from these tests that no statistically significant sportsmanship differences were achieved by the participating or non-participating boys.

In investigating the problems and attitudes of high school athletes, Smith sought three objectives: (1) to determine if high school athletes showed improvements in their attitudes as the result of a self-adjustive coach-athletic conference approach to counseling; (2) to determine if individuals who had been successfully counseled differed from those unsuccessfully counseled in the amount of attitude improvement shown; and (3) to investigate the problems and needs of high school athletes.⁴⁴

The IAO Rating Scale and the Mooney Problem Checklist

⁴³Geneva B. Kehr, "An Analysis of Sportsmanship Responses of Groups of Boys Classified as Participants and Non-Participants in Organized Baseball" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, New York University, 1959).

⁴⁴Edward J. Smith, "An Experimental Study of the Problems and Attitudes of High School Athletes" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Colorado, 1958).

were administered to 100 athletes. One trained and two untrained coach-counselors were employed to conduct the conferences. The statistical conclusions showed that the attitudes of the experimental group did not differ from those of the control group. The final conclusion was that athletes' attitudes do not change as a result of this type of counseling experience.

In an attempt to determine the sportsmanship behavior of students in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, George Bovyer selected children from two different schools for a test sample.⁴⁵ To the students of one school he told twelve stories containing sportsmanship situations. After listening to the stories, the children wrote on what sportsmanship meant to them. The pupils in the other school also wrote on the same topic but did not hear the stories. It was concluded that there was no significant difference between the two groups.

In attempting to determine the overt and covert responses made on value judgments in sports situations, Slusher undertook a study comparing two groups of varsity football players.⁴⁶ The athletes were divided into group A--highly sportsmanlike--and group B--highly unsportsmanlike--

⁴⁵George Bovyer, "Children's Concepts of Sportsmanship in the Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Grades," Research Quarterly, XXXIV (October, 1963), p. 16.

⁴⁶Howard Slusher, "The Overt and Covert Responses of Football Players to a Test of Sportsmanship" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1962).

as selected by the evaluation of their coaches. Each group was given a psychometer test which recorded the covert responses of the athlete. No difference was found between overt and covert responses of the athletes in two groups.

In administering the Haskins and Hartman tests of ethical responses in the area of sportsmanship on 233 college students, Richardson concluded that students highly approved the practice of taking advantage of a sport's situation if they could get away with it.⁴⁷ He stated that the association between lower scores on sportsmanship tests and subsidized athletics seemed to be pretty well established. He failed to observe any gain in increasing the level of sportsmanship in the college athletic program.

In investigating critical incidents in athletics, Crawford attempted the following tasks: (1) to collect and identify types of ethically critical conduct demonstrated in actual situations by personnel connected with intercollegiate athletics, and (2) to formulate acceptable ethical standards by the respondents submitting the incidents.⁴⁸

Crawford surveyed 300 senior colleges and universities of all sizes and types to find a total of 1,104 incidents of

⁴⁷Deane E. Richardson, "Ethical Conduct in Sports Situations," National College Physical Education Association Proceedings Annual Meeting, 1962, pp. 98-104

⁴⁸Melvin M. Crawford, "Critical Incidents in Intercollegiate Athletics and Derived Standards of Professional Ethics" (unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Texas, 1957).

ethically critical behavior in athletic events. There was significant statistical evidence that there is a difference in incidents in certain areas of ethical conduct as reported. The greater share of the incidents was relative to officiating (40 percent). Football and basketball were involved in 82 percent of the ethically critical events reported.

From statements of suggested ideal ethical conduct supplied by respondents and from a study of the ninety-six types of unethical action reported, there was derived a total of 134 ethical standards or statements of correct ethical action. Each statement of ethical standard was supported by illustrations of type of critical incidents to which the standard would apply. This statement of ethical standards constituted a major finding of the study.

In a study on the ethically questionable actions of college coaches, Harvey surveyed 728 varsity lettermen from midwestern colleges.⁴⁹ He found that basketball and football coaches were reported more frequently than were baseball and track coaches.

In trying to ascertain the sportsmanship attitudes of college students toward situations in competitive athletics, Flory distributed and retrieved over 2,000 opinionnaires from students representing sixty-nine universities and

⁴⁹Robert R. Harvey, "An Evaluation of the Practices of Selected Ethically Questionable Actions by College Athletic Coaches" (unpublished P.E.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1963).

colleges.⁵⁰ The opinionnaire described twenty-five situations in football, basketball, golf, and tennis. Each situation described a violation of sportsmanship conduct. Leaders in physical education also replied to the opinionnaire.

Flory concluded from the study that (1) there was significant difference between approval and disapproval; (2) female college students have slightly better sportsmanship attitudes than do male college students; (3) little difference was found in state, private, or denominational colleges; (4) intramural participation in high school or college had no effect upon opinionnaire responses; (5) no reliable differences were found between the sportsmanship of church members and nonchurch members; (6) age and year in college may have a slight effect on replies; (7) a greater number of students approved actions of poor sportsmanship in team sports than in individual sports; (8) the section of the country in which the college was located did not seem to affect responses; and (9) approval of poor sportsmanship is greater in baseball than in other sports.

Flory concluded by stating that, on the basis of his results, "unsportsmanlike attitudes seem to prevail among college students to a considerable degree."⁵¹

⁵⁰Clarence M. Flory, "Sportsmanship Attitudes of College Students Toward Situations in Competitive Athletics" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Texas, 1958).

⁵¹Ibid.

Several of the studies reported on in the foregoing section on sportsmanship have revealed a negative relationship between athletic participation and sportsmanship values. Many of these studies, however, did not control or account for the socioeconomic levels of their test samples. This factor could have influenced the resultant relationships as different socioeconomic groups reportedly possess or emphasize different value patterns.⁵² In yet other studies, the testing procedures utilized to test values often elicited only what students professed to believe rather than how they actually behave in life situations. These deficiencies have been controlled for in the present study as the researcher has labeled each test subject in terms of his socioeconomic level and has carefully selected the inventories in order to elicit true student behavior.

Opinions from Leaders in Athletics

Most leaders in athletics tend to believe that interscholastic athletics is an excellent vehicle for inculcating desirable social traits in both student participants and spectators. Some of these men realize, however, that such benefits do not come automatically but have to be planned for carefully. Nevertheless, most of the claims presently forwarded on behalf of athletics still seem to be overly

⁵²W. Lloyd Warner, Democracy in Jonesville (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949), p. 65.

optimistic. The following samplings of opinion from leaders in athletics treat various aspects of athletics and represent the thoughts of many prominent individuals in the field.

Character development in athletics was the main theme of a speech given by Reuben Frost, former president of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, in August, 1965, to the International Olympic Academy. Frost indicated:

In athletic competition, in sports and games, we find situations which very closely resemble those occurring in later life, in business, in the home, in the office. The same type of behavior is often called for under both sets of circumstances. Control of temper, acceptance of authority, obedience to rules, self-discipline, subjugation of self for the good of the organization, and cooperation are examples.

Frost implied that if individuals can and will apply the principles learned in competitive sports much can be accomplished.

The abstracted comments presented by Frost are representative of many of the statements made by leaders in athletics. Many such leaders assume that experiences in athletics are basically similar to experiences faced in day-to-day activity. Not only do many maintain that what is learned in athletics will automatically carry over into actual life situations, but they also further assume that the principles acquired in interscholastic athletics are desirable and should be transferred to other areas. Until present time, however, there have been no objective studies which ascertain

the extent to which the principles learned in athletics are desirable and to the degree that they are transferable to the daily environment. The present study will partially attempt to address itself to these points.

In a paper delivered at a meeting of the Football Rules Committee in Tennessee, Jackson directed his remarks to outcomes in athletics.⁵³ He suggested that the secondary school athletic program, if properly conducted, could be of lasting value to students and athletes, or it could do lasting harm. Jackson contended, for example, that harm could come from students observing violations of rules. He concluded by indicating that it is impossible to know the full impact upon a community when a very few are taught to disregard rules and regulations; in such instances the evil could be multiplied over and over through the years.

Calloway Taulbee, in commenting on interscholastic athletics, maintained that good citizenship must result from all coaching and from all interschool competition.⁵⁴ He suggested that the education of the youth of the nation fails unless it creates the proper ideals and attitudes, both in

⁵³S. D. Jackson, "What Our Sons Should and Should Not Receive from Athletic Participation" (address at the Member National Alliance Football Rules Committee meeting, September, 1959).

⁵⁴Calloway Taulbee, "The National Association of Secondary School Principals Looks at Interscholastic Athletics" (address at the National Federation Annual Meeting, July, 1960).

the game and off the field. Taulbee also contended that the number of students accommodated and the educational aims sought warrant the use of tax funds. To further justify the use of tax funds for athletics, Taulbee suggested that athletic orientated programs should be initiated to reach all nonparticipating students and community followers of the school teams in order to insure a proper understanding and appreciation of the sports' skills and of the need for adherence to principle of games' ethics.

In its July, 1960, report, The National Association of Secondary School Principals presented recommendations on athletics.⁵⁵ It suggested that, in addition to the value accruing to participants in athletics, the entire student body and community might benefit in the following ways: (1) by developing an understanding and appreciation of the place interscholastic sports occupy in American culture and developing sound educational attitudes; (2) by educating the student body in the appreciation of sports and the best way to enjoy them from the point of view of good sportsmanship; (3) by serving as the focal point for morale, spirit, and loyalty of the students by providing common meeting ground for enthusiasm which is shared by all; (4) by providing a wholesome program of sports in which students, parents, patrons, and friends of the school may share, to the end that the loyalty of these

⁵⁵The National Association of Secondary School Principals, "Recommendations on Athletics for All," July, 1960.

groups to the school may be constantly renewed, strengthened, and united.

In fairness to the claims advanced on behalf of interscholastic athletics by several of its spokesmen, it should be realized that many of the contentions have been accompanied by qualifications. A number of these qualifications have emphasized that, in order for values to accrue as a result of successful athletic programs, enlightened support, personnel, and leadership must come from superintendents of schools, principals, teachers, coaches, student bodies, and communities. Nevertheless, as previously indicated, even given the desired ingredients for athletic programs, scholarly research is still lacking to substantiate many of the claims forwarded.

Summary

The literature reviewed in the related research has shed light on the two concepts utilized in this study--values and interscholastic athletics--but in no way have these studies encompassed the scope or the intent of the present undertaking.

Distinctive features of the present research include its (1) test population; (2) involvement with secondary interscholastic programs; (3) treatment of both sportsmanship and societal values; and (4) potential implications for school administration, teaching, and athletic coaching.

The related literature suggests the changeability of

values and the extent to which they are influenced by and exposed to environmental factors; the great attention, importance, and status attached to interscholastic athletics in the school environment; the negative influence or absence of desirable influence interscholastic athletics has on student sportsmanship values; and the potential interscholastic athletics has for becoming a vehicle for promoting desirable student values.

Because many of the studies in the related research have utilized different types of test populations, objectives, and techniques in arriving at their conclusions, it is unwise to generalize collectively about their results in terms of the present study. It is appropriate, however, to acknowledge the existent inconsistencies between the positive claims forwarded on behalf of athletics and the negative findings of some of the preceding studies. These inconsistencies should cause school personnel to begin to question the value interscholastic athletics has in today's school curriculum. Such questioning has given impetus to this study as the researcher has deemed it necessary to conduct further research into the field of athletics. It is his hope that this research will aid in the continuing effort to determine the total value interscholastic athletics has to the school program and to the students.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

In order to carry out the study, the writer received the cooperation of neighboring high schools having membership in the Cooperative School Service Center--an educational study council comprised of fifty-five school systems in Western Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire, and Connecticut.

Population and Sample

The study population came from five high schools, most of which make up the partial membership of several athletic conferences. Within each high school, the researcher sought to include the entire senior male enrollment as the test population. These students were invited to respond in writing to one information blank, one inventory on sportsmanship values, and one inventory on selected societal values. The utilization of specified Western Massachusetts high schools as test schools ensured that students who were part of the test population came from schools of similar size and who were exposed to somewhat similar geographical and environmental influences. The high schools themselves were specifically chosen on the basis of their total school enrollment, senior male population, and proximity to the University of

Massachusetts. These procedures were taken to secure a somewhat homogeneous test population in terms of the environments that the test subjects had been subjected to.

General Design

The selected inventories and information blanks were administered by the researcher to the test population near the completion of the entire 1967-68 fall, winter, and spring high school sport schedules. The inventory on societal values and the student information blank were the first materials administered. The administration of the inventory on sportsmanship values occurred after a one- to two-week interval had elapsed. Each round of testing took place within a week as all test subjects responded to the materials administered by the researcher in their respective high schools. A final form, an information blank designed for school administrators, was given to the high school athletic directors by the researcher to be completed at their earliest convenience.

After all forms had been administered and scored, the researcher divided the test population into subgroups according to student characteristics (Table 1). The first grouping was based on student association with interscholastic athletics. Each student was designated as either an athletic participant, a spectator, or a nonspectator.

The second grouping was based on student socioeconomic data. Each student was designated as in either the upper-

TABLE 1
STUDENT MEMBERSHIP BY SUBGROUPS

Student Groups in Relation to Interscholastic Athletics	Student Groups in Relation to Socioeconomic Level	Student Membership by School
Athletic Participant	Upper-middle Class	School 1
N = 139	N = 99	N = 54
Spectator	Lower-middle Class	School 2
N = 107	N = 138	N = 88
Nonspectator	Upper-lower Class	School 3
N = 89	N = 98	N = 71
		School 4
		N = 62
		School 5
		N = 60
Total	N = 335	N = 335

middle class, lower-middle class, or upper-lower class on the basis of criteria established by the Bureau of Census of the U.S. Department of Commerce.

The third grouping was based on school attendance. Each student was divided into one of five groups on the basis of the school he attended.

After all students were appropriately divided, group scores were treated statistically by several methods in order to ascertain the various relationships which existed. The specific statistical procedures utilized on the data have been specified in Chapter IV under the section entitled "Treatment of Data."

Instruments

Two information blanks and two inventories were utilized in collecting data by the researcher. The information blanks were devised by the researcher; one was administered to the test population; the second, to the athletic directors of the test schools. The sportsmanship inventory which was used was entitled the "Action-Choice Tests for Competitive Sports Situations" by Hartman and Haskins.⁵⁶ The inventory used to test selected societal values was entitled "Life Problems" by Havighurst and Taba as used in their

⁵⁶Betty Hartman and Mary Jane Haskins, "A Problem-Solving Test of Sportsmanship" (unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Ohio State University, 1959).

Prairie City study.⁵⁷

The information blanks were designed to obtain necessary facts about each student and his school in the test population. Information pertaining to the following areas was asked for: student socioeconomic background, varsity sports teams participated on by number of years, school team records by sport, student attendance at athletic contests, senior male enrollment, amount of funds budgeted for interscholastic athletics, number of coaches per sport, and league membership.

The inventory prepared by Haskins and Hartman which was used to measure the quality of student sportsmanship values was composed of questions that cover some of the current practices in athletics. The students were presented specific sport situations with the behavior of the participants described. They were then asked to select from among five alternatives the course of action they thought to be most appropriate. Most of the sports situations presented had violated a rule or its "spirit."

As the Haskins and Hartman inventory did not have a reported validity and reliability coefficient, the researcher had to ascertain these scores independently. In obtaining the validity coefficient, the researcher administered a

⁵⁷Robert Havighurst and Hilda Taba, "Life Problems," in Adolescent Character and Personality (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949), pp. 264-273.

questionnaire to selected faculty. The questionnaire treated similar sportsmanship values that were tested for in the inventory administered to the test population. Each selected faculty member was asked to answer the questionnaire in the way in which he thought the designated student (on whose behalf he was responding) would have behaved in the specified situations. Their answers were based upon their past observations of the student's behavior in day-to-day activity. Faculty selection was based upon knowledge of the selected students.

The student names which the faculty responded on behalf of were randomly chosen and corresponded to 10 percent of the total number of students taking the sportsmanship inventory (thirty). The researcher then paired the responses obtained from the faculty-administered tests to the corresponding responses obtained from the student tests and proceeded to utilize the Pearson Product-Moment Method to compute the validity coefficient of the sportsmanship inventory. The resultant coefficient was .63 which was significant at the .01 level of confidence.

In order to secure a reliability coefficient for the sportsmanship inventory, the researcher randomly selected 10 percent of the student inventories (thirty) and proceeded to conduct split half tests of reliability. The Pearson Product-Moment Method was used to compute the coefficient. The resultant reliability coefficient was .79 which was

significant at the .01 level of confidence.

The "Life Problems" inventory was used to elicit and measure the desirability of selected societal values held by students. The values measured as previously indicated were those which guide and influence the behavior of students and which take part in their decision-making processes. The inventory presented to the test population eight behavioral situations in which the students selected both a course of action and the reasons for their selection. In many instances the students were forced to choose between and among values as they presently do in real life situations. The behavioral situations on the inventory were designed to measure actual or simulated student behavior as the students were directed to place themselves into the described situations.

As on the preceding inventory, the "Life Problems Test" did not have a reported validity coefficient. The researcher, therefore, followed the same procedures used for the sportsmanship inventory to obtain the validity coefficient for the "Life Problems Test." This necessitated an administration of a questionnaire to designated faculty members (those members who were listed by students as knowing them the best). The number of student names which the faculty responded on behalf of were randomly chosen and corresponded to 10 percent of the test population (thirty-two). The researcher then paired the responses obtained from the faculty-administered tests to the corresponding responses obtained from

the student tests and proceeded to utilize the Pearson Product-Moment Method to compute the validity coefficient. The resultant validity coefficient was .29 which was not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

There are substantial reasons why the validity coefficient of the "Life Problems Test" was somewhat low and underestimated the actual test validity. The inventory administered to the selected faculty dealt with generalities, while the student inventory dealt with specific situations and included very specific statements. It is, therefore, possible that students who usually display desirable principles of moral character, when being observed in general school situations, in actuality may not apply them when the same principles are involved in more specific and discrete situations. Moreover, according to Havighurst and Taba, the "Life Problems Test" forced students to choose between values so that a high score on one trait necessitated a lower score on other traits.⁵⁸ Each situation on the "Life Problems Test" posed a direct choice between conflicting values, while on the inventory completed by the faculty members, values were represented by separate items. In another light, it is quite possible that many of the selected faculty members did not intimately know those students on whose behalf they were responding.

⁵⁸Havighurst and Taba, Adolescent Character and Personality, p. 281.

It is evident, however, that the strategy utilized to obtain an accurate validity coefficient did not work. Nevertheless, if the preceding factors are taken into consideration, the actual validity of the "Life Problems Test" seems to warrant a substantially higher validity coefficient than was reported.

Although the researcher does not know the true validity of the "Life Problems Test," his confidence in the test has been reinforced by other researchers who have used this same instrument in similar situations. Havighurst and Taba, in reference to the "Life Problems Test," implied that despite some limitations the results from it were highly gratifying.⁵⁹

The reliability of the "Life Problems Test" was previously demonstrated by Havighurst and Taba in their Prairie City study. The Kuder-Richardson method for computing reliability was used to establish reliability for each value trait. The trait reliabilities ranged from .58 to .81. In commenting on the results, Havighurst and Taba reported that, "since the Kuder and Richardson method usually underestimates actual reliability, the scores from this test can be considered dependable enough to be used both in analysis of individual cases and in group comparisons."⁶⁰

⁵⁹Ibid., p. 283.

⁶⁰Ibid., p. 277.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Treatment of the Data

It was the intention of the researcher to include in the test population the entire senior male enrollment of each of the five test schools. Due to the various school programs and scheduling techniques, this was not possible. Work study programs, flexible scheduling, and absenteeism prevented testing the entire selected senior male population. Fortunately, however, 75 to 80 percent of the potential test population was tested; this included 317 students taking the test on societal values and 299 students taking the test on sportsmanship values.

The researcher analyzed the data by grouping the test results in terms of the following three variables: (1) degree of student participation in interscholastic athletics (athletic participant, spectator, and nonspectator); (2) student socioeconomic level (upper-middle, lower-middle, and upper-lower); and (3) student school membership. Analysis of variables (2) and (3) were undertaken to control and account for any systematic bias which could have influenced the components of variable (1) in their performances on the inventories utilized in this study.

Treatment of the data took on four distinct

statistical operations. The first operation necessitated the placing of each individual's test result, which was scored in terms of a percentage of desirable responses over total responses, into an appropriate category. Grouping of test scores was based on student athletic participation, student socioeconomic level, and student school membership. This procedure enabled the researcher to calculate, for each of the two tests administered and subsequently for each of the categorical groupings, the mean percent of desirable responses of the test scores. To house the treatment of data pertaining to each of the three stated variables and the varying categorical grouping, the researcher designed, for each administered test, three two-way statistical tables. The first table was composed of nine cells (3 by 3) while the other two were composed of fifteen cells (3 by 5). As each cell was designated by two variables, the test data of each subject were inserted into a cell on the basis of the specified characteristics of that subject. Each two-way table was designed to depict the measurement of each of the two variables in the table as well as the interaction of the variables with one another.

The depicted mean percentages of test scores for each variable and combination of variables allows the reader to ascertain the various relationships and patterns among the several groups in terms of percentage differences. It should be noted that between two groups the higher group percentage

indicates that the mean test scores of the subjects of that group consist, on the average, of tests with more correct responses out of total responses than the test scores of the other group.

The second operation consisted of a two-way analysis of variance on each of the aforementioned tables. The purpose for utilizing this procedure was to determine if there was an overall significant difference among the groups being treated. In statistical terms, the test of significance used is known as an F test; it permits simultaneous tests of significance for each of the two variables in the table. A two-way analysis of variance also yields the degree of interaction between two variables and implies the extent of influence each variable has on the other.

The third operation consisted of the utilization of a Q test; specifically, the Newman-Keuls method. The Q test was utilized by the researcher in order to probe the nature of the differences between treatment means (specified groups) following a significant overall F test. By this procedure, significant differences between groups and combinations of groups may be revealed as well as those pairs of groups which do not have significant differences.

The fourth operation consisted of the utilization of correlation coefficients, followed by tests of significance for r (coefficient of correlation). This operation enabled the researcher to ascertain the degree of relationship between

and among several of the stated variables.

The four preceding operations were utilized by the researcher to test the fourteen hypotheses stated in Chapter I, as it was the primary purpose of this chapter to present only the results of these tests, the implications and inferences drawn by the researcher from the test results will be presented in Chapters V and VI.

Step I

The hypotheses tested in this step were:

Hypothesis One: There are no significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values between the athletic participant and spectator groups.

Hypothesis Two: There are no significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values between the athletic participant and nonspectator groups.

Hypothesis Three: There are no significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values between the spectator and nonspectator groups.

The data used to test Hypotheses One, Two, and Three were secured through use of the "Action-Choice Test for Competitive Sports Situations." The results of the group performances are depicted in Tables 2, 3, and 4. Table 2 reveals the mean percent of desirable responses of the test scores per group; Table 3 presents the summary of the analysis of variance test of mean scores; and Table 4 consists of the

TABLE 2

MEAN PERCENT OF TEST SCORES BY GROUP
Sportsmanship Value Inventory

Group	Athletic Participants	Spectators	Nonspectators	Total
Upper-Middle Class	49.5% N=51	50.5% N=24	50.9% N=15	50.0% N=90
Lower-Middle Class	43.5% N=45	40.3% N=40	51.9% N=31	44.6% N=116
Upper-Lower Class	39.6% N=26	45.9% N=28	47.9% N=39	45.0% N=93
Total	45.2% N=122	44.7% N=92	49.9% N=85	

TABLE 3

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TEST OF MEAN SCORES FOR TREATMENT

Sportsmanship Value Inventory

Variables	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Squares	Observed F Values	Critical F Values (.01)	Critical F Values (.05)
Degree of Athletic Participation	2	60.05	30.25	5.45 ^a	4.61	3.00
Socioeconomic Levels	2	60.29	30.15	5.43 ^a	4.61	3.00
Interaction of the Above Variables	4	50.30	12.58	2.27	3.32	2.37
Error Term	411	67,791.34	164.94	5.55 ^b		

^aObserved F values, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

^bDerived by use of the correction term 29.70 which was divided into the error term-mean square; the correction term was derived by the summation of the reciprocal of each cell frequency divided into the total number of cells.

TABLE 4
NEWMAN-KEULS MODIFIED Q TEST
Sportsmanship Value Inventory

	Athletic Participants	Spectators	Nonspectators
Order	1	2	3
Treatments in order of Total Means	c	a	d
Total Means	132.6	136.7	150.7

Table of Differences Between Treatment Means

	c	a	d
c	-	4.1 ^a	18.1 ^b
a		-	14.0 ^c
d			-

Truncated range r	2	3
Critical Value for Q .99 (r, infinity)	3.64	4.12
Critical Values for the difference between two means Q .99 (r, infinity) $\sqrt{\text{KMS error}}$	14.9	17.7
Critical Value for Q .95 (r, infinity)	2.77	3.31
Critical Values for the difference between two means Q .95 (r, infinity) $\sqrt{\text{KMS error}}$	11.4	13.6

^aObserved difference between treatment means a and c, not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

^bObserved difference between treatment means d and c, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

^cObserved difference between treatment means d and a, significant at the .05 level of confidence.

results of the Q test.

The analysis of variance test yielded an overall significant difference for the variable pertaining to the degree of athletic participation at the .01 level of confidence. The Q test revealed that a significant difference existed at the .01 confidence level between the nonspectator and athletic participant groups, and that a significant difference existed at the .05 confidence level between the nonspectator and spectator groups. Significant differences between the athletic participant and spectator groups, however, did not exist. Therefore, Hypothesis One is accepted; Hypothesis Two is rejected; and Hypothesis Three is rejected. These results indicate, as substantiated by Tables 2, 3, and 4, that the nonspectator group possessed a higher degree of desirable sportsmanship values, as defined in this study, than did the athletic participant and spectator groups.

Step Two

The hypotheses treated in this step were:

Hypothesis Four: There are no significant differences in the desirability of societal values between the athletic participant and spectator groups.

Hypothesis Five: There are no differences in the desirability of societal values between the athletic participant and nonspectator groups.

Hypothesis Six: There are no differences in the

desirability of societal values between the spectator and nonspectator groups.

The data used to test Hypotheses Four, Five, and Six were secured through use of the "Life Problems Test." The results of the group performances are tabulated in Tables 5, 6, and 7. Table 5 consists of the mean percent of desirable responses of the test scores per group; Table 6 presents the summary of the analysis of variance test of mean scores; and Table 7 reveals the results of the Q test.

The analysis of variance test displayed no overall significant difference for the variable pertaining to the degree of athletic participation at the .05 degree of confidence. The Q test revealed that no significant differences existed at the .05 confidence level between any of the three groups specified in the above hypotheses. Therefore, Hypothesis Four is accepted; Hypothesis Five is accepted; and Hypothesis Six is accepted. These results indicate, as substantiated by Tables 5, 6, and 7, that there are no significant differences in the desirability of societal values among student groups associated with interscholastic athletics in varying degrees as seen in the context of this study.

Step Three

The hypotheses in this step were:

Hypothesis Seven: There is no positive, significant correlation between the societal and sportsmanship values of

TABLE 5

MEAN PERCENT OF TEST SCORES BY GROUP
Societal Value Inventory

Group	Athletic Participants	Spectators	Nonspectators	Total
Upper-Middle Class	56.8% N=49	57.1% N=26	54.9% N=14	56.6% N=89
Lower-Middle Class	52.1% N=54	52.0% N=45	54.2% N=37	52.7% N=136
Upper-Lower Class	55.9% N=27	50.2% N=29	59.4% N=36	55.5% N=92
Total	54.7% N=130	52.8% N=100	56.4% N=87	

TABLE 6
SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TEST OF MEAN SCORES FOR TREATMENT
Societal Value Inventory

Variables	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Squares	Observed F Values	Critical F Values (.01)	Critical F Values (.05)
Degree of Athletic Participation	2	14.29	7.15	1.88 ^a	4.61	3.00
Socioeconomic Levels	2	19.22	9.61	2.52 ^a	4.61	3.00
Interaction of the Above Variables	4	34.77	8.69	2.82	3.32	2.37
Error Term	483.6	56,454.54	116.74	3.81 ^b		

^aObserved F values, not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

^bDerived by use of the correction term 30.6.

TABLE 7
 NEWMAN-KEULS MODIFIED Q TEST
 Societal Value Inventory

	Spectators	Athletic Participants	Nonspectators
Order	1	2	3
Treatments in order of Total Means	c	a	d
Total Means	159.3	164.8	168.5

Table of Differences Between Treatment Means

	c	a	d
c	-	5.5 ^a	9.2 ^a
a		-	3.7 ^a
d			-
Truncated range r			2 3
Critical Value for Q .99 (r, infinity)			3.64 4.12
Critical Values for the difference between two means Q .99 (r, infinity) $\sqrt{\text{KMS error}}$		12.4	14.0
Critical Value for Q .95 (r, infinity)		2.77	3.31
Critical Values for the difference between two means Q .95 (r, infinity) $\sqrt{\text{KMS error}}$		9.4	11.3

^aObserved differences between treatment means, not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

athletic participants.

Hypothesis Eight: There is no positive, significant correlation between the societal and sportsmanship of spectators.

Hypothesis Nine: There is no positive, significant correlation between the societal and sportsmanship values of nonspectators.

The data used to test Hypotheses Seven, Eight, and Nine were based on the pairs of test scores of each subject. The researcher, with the aid of a computer, obtained the correlation coefficient for each of the three specified groups.

There were 114 pairs of test scores in the athletic participant group, 86 pairs of test scores in the spectator group, and 79 pairs of test scores in the nonspectator group. The computer program labeled correlation with transgeneration was used to obtain the following correlation coefficients: .20 for athletic participants, .57 for spectators, and .26 for nonspectators. The overall correlation coefficient for all groups was .34.

The test for the significance of r (coefficient of correlation) for the preceding coefficients revealed that .26 for the nonspectator group and .20 for the athletic participant group were both significant at the .05 confidence level. The coefficient .57 for the spectator group and .34 for the overall group were both significant at the .01 confidence level.

Hypotheses Seven, Eight, and Nine are rejected as there are positive, significant correlations for the collective pairs of test scores of each individual in each of the three student groups. These results have reinforced the statistical tabulations depicted in Tables 2 and 5. The correlation coefficient of .57 for the spectator group resulted from the relative low scores that these individuals obtained on both the societal and sportsmanship inventories. The correlation coefficient of .26 for the nonspectator group resulted from the relatively high score that these individuals obtained on the sportsmanship inventory and their slightly above-average performance on the societal value inventory. The coefficient of .20 for the athletic participant group resulted from the relatively low score that these individuals obtained on the sportsmanship value inventory and near normative performance they displayed on the societal value inventory.

Step Four

The hypotheses treated in this step were:

Hypothesis Ten: The socioeconomic level of students does not influence significant differences in the desirability of student sportsmanship values among student groups (athletic participant, spectator, and nonspectator).

Hypothesis Eleven: The socioeconomic level of students does not influence significant differences in the desirability

of student societal values among student groups (athletic participant, spectator, and nonspectator).

The data used to test Hypotheses Ten and Eleven were secured through use of the tests on sportsmanship and societal values referred to previously. The results of the sportsmanship inventory, which appear in group percentage form in Table 2, have indicated that a consistent scoring pattern has been formed among the groups of the socioeconomic variable. Students in the upper-middle class possessed, on the average, a higher degree of sportsmanship values than either of the lower-middle or upper-lower class students. As expected, significant differences in sportsmanship values between socioeconomic groups were observed in Table 8. Differences between the upper-middle and upper-lower classes were significant at the .05 confidence level; and differences between the upper-middle and lower-middle classes were significant at the .01 confidence level.

If Hypothesis Ten was true, it could be assumed that the group percentage scores appearing within each vertical column in Table 2 would not differ significantly from one another or fall within a consistent scoring pattern. As observed, however, the data in Tables 2 and 8 indicated otherwise, as the scores of the upper-middle, lower-middle, and upper-lower class students differed significantly from one another within each student group (athletic participant, spectator, and nonspectator). These scoring differences

TABLE 8
NEWMAN-KEULS MODIFIED Q TEST
Sportsmanship Value Inventory

	Upper-Lower	Lower-Middle	Upper-Middle
Order	1	2	3
Treatments in order of Total Means	c	a	d
Total Means	133.4	135.7	150.9

Table of Differences Between Treatment Means

	c	a	d
c	-	2.3 ^a	17.5 ^b
a		-	15.2 ^c
d			-

Truncated range r	2	3
Critical Value for Q .99 (r, infinity)	3.64	4.12
Critical Values for the difference between two means Q .99 (r, infinity) \sqrt{KMS} error	14.9	17.7
Critical Values for Q .95 (r, infinity)	2.77	3.31
Critical Values for the difference between two means Q .95 (r, infinity) \sqrt{KMS} error	11.4	13.6

^aObserved difference between treatment means a and c, not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

^bObserved difference between treatment means d and c, significant at the .05 level of confidence.

^cObserved difference between treatment means d and a, significant at the .05 level of confidence.

among the student socioeconomic classes contributed to the final tabulation of each of the three specified student groups and thus influenced, to some extent, the significant differences found among the groups.

Further data, which indicated that the socioeconomic level of students influenced significant differences in student sportsmanship values, were revealed in the interaction score in Table 3. Although the score was not significant at the .05 level of confidence, substantial interaction took place between the socioeconomic variable and the athletic participation variable as observed by the graphic form of the interaction in Figure 1. This tended to suggest that each variable had some influence on the performance of the other.

With all the evidence at hand and based upon the previously indicated significant differences, the researcher concluded that the significant differences found in the desirability of sportsmanship values among student groups were influenced, to some extent, by the socioeconomic level of students. Hypothesis Ten is, therefore, rejected.

The results of the societal value inventory, which appear in group percentage form in Table 5, revealed that no consistent scoring pattern was formed among the groups of the socioeconomic variable. Table 9, in turn, revealed that no significant differences in the desirability of societal values existed between the student socioeconomic levels at the .05 confidence level.

TABLE 9
NEWMAN-KEULS MODIFIED Q TEST
Societal Value Inventory

	Lower-Middle	Upper-Lower	Upper-Middle
Order	1	2	3
Treatments in order of Total Means	c	a	d
Total Means	158.3	165.5	168.8

Table of Differences Between Treatment Means

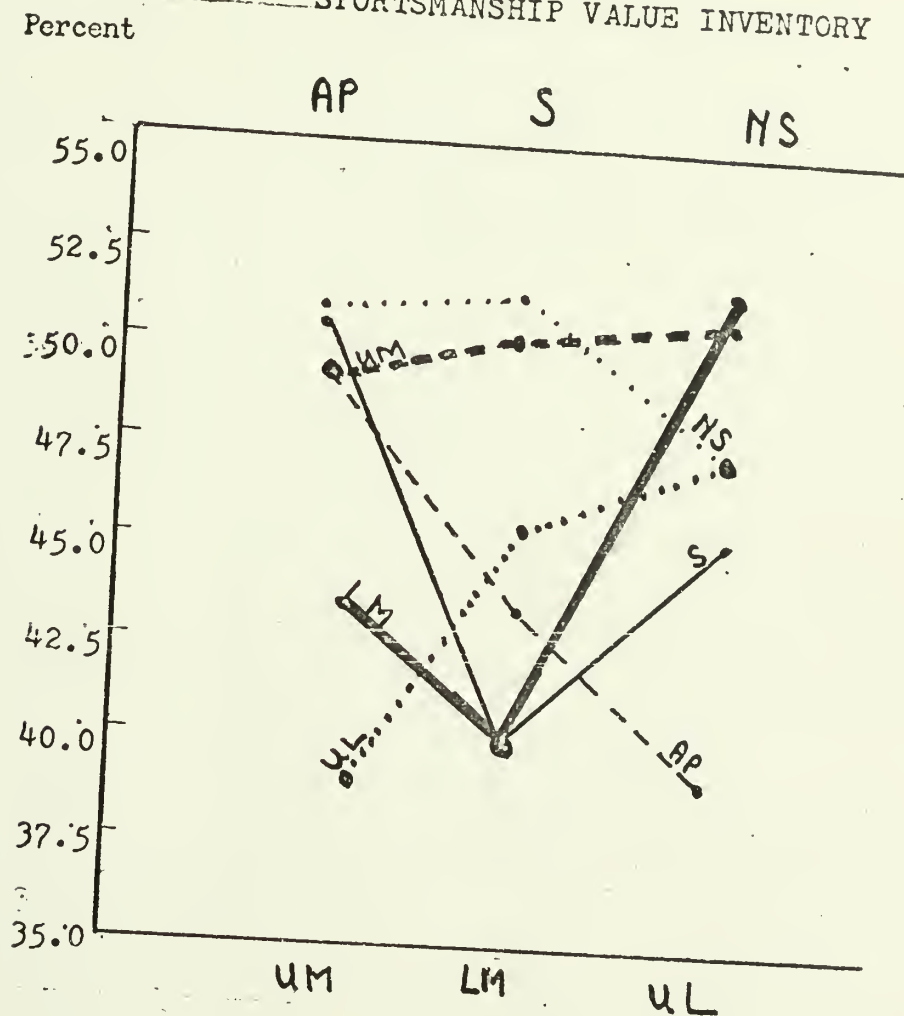
	c	a	d
c	-	7.2 ^a	10.5 ^a
a		-	3.3 ^a
d			-

Truncated range r	2	3
Critical Value for Q .99 (r, infinity)	3.64	4.12
Critical Values for the difference between two means Q .99 (r, infinity) $\sqrt{\text{KMS error}}$	12.4	14.0
Critical Values for Q .95 (r, infinity)	2.77	3.31
Critical Values for the difference between two means Q .95 (r, infinity) $\sqrt{\text{KMS error}}$	9.4	11.3

^aObserved difference between treatment means, not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

FIGURE 1

INTERACTION OF TWO VARIABLES
 SOCIOECONOMIC LEVEL--DEGREE OF ATHLETIC PARTICIPATION
 SPORTSMANSHIP VALUE INVENTORY



KEY

Class Designations	SportsmanSHIP Scores in Percent			Group Designations	SportsmanSHIP Scores in Percent		
	AP	S	NS		UM	LM	UL
Upper-Middle--	49.5	50.5	50.9	Athletic Participant--	49.5	43.5	39.6
Lower-Middle--	43.5	40.3	51.9		50.5	40.3	45.9
Upper-Lower...	39.6	45.9	47.9		50.9	51.9	47.9
				Nonspectator...			

Using the same rationale as was used in the discussion of Hypothesis Ten; i.e., if Hypothesis Eleven was assumed to be true, then the group percentage scores appearing within each vertical column in Table 5 would not differ significantly from one another or fall within a consistent scoring pattern. From our preceding observations, we know this to be fact.

Although the interaction score on Table 6 was not significant at the .05 confidence level, Figure 2 displayed substantial interaction between the two variables. The lack of significance on the part of the two main variables, however, made it impossible for the interaction score to influence significant differences in the desirability of societal values among student groups. The researcher thus concluded that the socioeconomic levels of students in the test population did not influence significant differences in societal values among the student groups examined. Therefore, Hypothesis Eleven is accepted.

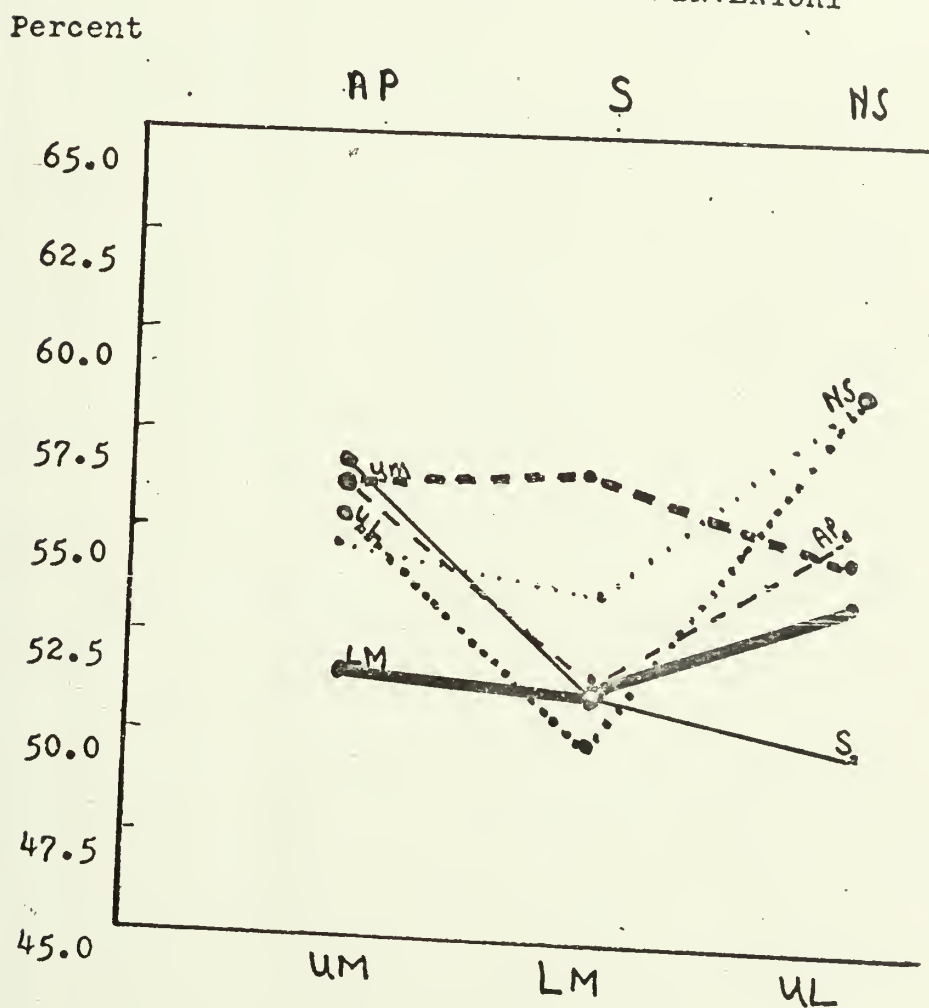
Step Five

The hypotheses treated in this step were:

Hypothesis Twelve: There are no significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values among the five test schools.

Hypothesis Thirteen: There are no significant differences in the desirability of societal values among the five test schools.

FIGURE 2
 INTERACTION OF TWO VARIABLES
 SOCIOECONOMIC LEVEL--DEGREE OF ATHLETIC PARTICIPATION
 SOCIETAL VALUE INVENTORY



KEY

Class Designations	Societal Scores in Percent			Group Designations	Societal Scores in Percent		
	AP	S	NS		UM	LM	UL
Upper-Middle	56.8	57.1	54.9	Athletic Participant	56.8	52.1	55.9
Lower-Middle	52.1	52.0	54.2		57.1	52.0	50.2
Upper-Lower	55.9	50.2	59.4	Nonspectator	54.9	54.2	59.4

The data used to test Hypothesis Twelve were secured through use of the "Action-Choice Test for Competitive Sports Situations." The results of the school performances are tabulated in Tables 10, 11, and 12. Table 10 consists of the mean percent of desirable responses of the test scores per school; Table 11 presents the summary of the analysis of variance test of mean scores; and Table 12 reveals the results of the Q test.

The analysis of variance test displayed an overall significant difference in sportsmanship values among the test schools at the .01 confidence level. The Q test revealed that a significant difference existed between Schools One and Four at the .01 confidence level. Additional significant differences were found at the .05 confidence level between Schools Two and Four and between Schools One and Three. Differences between other schools were not significant.

As significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values existed among the test schools, Hypothesis Twelve is, therefore, rejected.

The data used to test Hypothesis Thirteen was secured through use of the "Life Problems Test." The results of the performances by school are tabulated in Tables 13, 14, and 15. Table 13 consists of the mean percent of desirable responses of the test scores per school; Table 14 presents the analysis of variance test of mean scores; and Table 15 reveals the results of the Q test.

TABLE 10
MEAN PERCENT OF TEST SCORES BY SCHOOL
Sportsmanship Value Inventory

	School 1	School 2	School 3	School 4	School 5	Total
Athletic Participants	49.4% N=28	47.7% N=40	42.9% N=17	38.4% N=17	41.6% N=20	45.2% N=122
Spectators	49.8% N=17	45.8% N=25	38.4% N=16	44.6% N=12	44.0% N=22	44.7% N=92
Nonspectators	55.8% N=8	50.2% N=15	52.3% N=24	41.4% N=20	53.2% N=18	49.9% N=85
Total	50.5% N=53	47.6% N=80	45.6% N=57	41.1% N=49	46.0% N=60	

TABLE 11

Summary of Analysis of Variance Tests of Mean Scores for Treatment
Sportsmanship Value Inventory

Variables	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Squares	Observed F Values	Critical F Values (.01)	Critical F Values (.05)
Test Schools	4	173.46	43.37	7.72 ^a	3.32	2.37
Degree of Athletic Participation	2	133.81	66.91	11.91 ^a	4.61	3.00
Interaction of the Above Variables	8	96.46	12.06	2.15	2.51	1.94
Error Term	680.5	67,426.57	99.08	5.62 ^b		

^aObserved F values, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

^bDerived by use of the correction term 17.63.

TABLE 12
NEWMAN-KEULS MODIFIED Q TEST
Sportsmanship Value Inventory

	School 4	School 3	School 5	School 2	School 1
Order •	1	2	3	4	5
Treatments in order of Total Means	c	a	d	b	g
Total Means	124.4	133.6	138.8	143.7	155.0

Table of Differences Between Treatment Means

	c	a	d	b	g
c	-	9.2 ^a	14.4 ^a	19.3 ^b	30.6 ^c
a		-	5.2 ^a	10.1 ^a	21.4 ^b
d			-	4.9 ^a	16.2 ^a
b				-	11.3 ^a
g					-

Truncated range r	2	3	4	5
Critical Value for Q .99 (r, infinity)	3.64	4.12	4.40	4.60
Critical Values for the difference between two means Q .99 (r, infinity) $\sqrt{\text{KMS error}}$	19.3	21.8	23.3	24.4
Critical Values for Q .95 (r, infinity)	2.77	3.31	3.63	3.86
Critical Values for the difference between two means Q .95 (r, infinity) $\sqrt{\text{KMS error}}$	14.7	17.5	19.2	20.5

^aObserved differences between treatment means, not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

^bObserved differences between treatment means, significant at the .05 level of confidence.

^cObserved differences between treatment means, significant at the .01 level of confidence.

TABLE 13

MEAN PERCENT OF TEST SCORES BY SCHOOL

Societal Value Inventory

	School 1	School 2	School 3	School 4	School 5	Total
Athletic Participants	61.4% N=25	49.8% N=43	57.5% N=18	57.0% N=25	51.3% N=19	54.7% N=130
Spectators	57.3% N=15	52.8% N=28	48.5% N=22	57.2% N=17	50.3% N=18	52.8% N=100
Nonspectators	55.1% N=7	58.5% N=16	53.4% N=30	58.8% N=19	57.5% N=15	56.4% N=87
Total	59.1% N=47	52.4% N=87	52.2% N=71	57.6% N=61	52.7% N=52	

TABLE 14
SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE TEST OF MEAN SCORES FOR TREATMENT
Societal Value Inventory

Variables	Degrees of Freedom	Sums of Squares	Mean Squares	Observed F Values	Critical F Values (.01)	Critical F Values (.05)
Test Schools	4	73.33	18.33	1.88 ^a	3.32	2.37
Degree of Athletic Participation	2	31.24	15.62	1.61 ^a	4.61	3.00
Interaction of the Above Variables	8	104.19	13.02	1.34	2.51	1.94
Error Term	811.7	65,073.56	80.17	9.73 ^b		

^aObserved F values, not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

^bDerived by use of the correction term 8.24.

TABLE 15
NEWMAN-KEULS MODIFIED Q TEST
Societal Value Inventory

	School 5	School 3	School 2	School 4	School 1
Order	1	2	3	4	5
Treatments in order of Total Means	c	a	c	b	g
Total Means	159.1	159.4	161.4	173.0	173.8

Table of Differences Between Treatment Means

	c	a	d	b	g
c	-	.3 ^a	2.3 ^a	13.9 ^a	14.7 ^a
a		-	2.0 ^a	13.6 ^a	14.4 ^a
d			-	11.6 ^a	12.4 ^a
b				-	.8 ^a
g					-

Truncated range r

Critical Value for Q .99
(r, infinity)

	2	3	4	5
	3.64	4.12	4.40	4.60

Critical Values for the
difference between two means
Q .99 (r, infinity) $\sqrt{\text{KMS error}}$

	25.5	28.8	30.8	32.2
--	------	------	------	------

Critical Values for
Q .95 (r, infinity)

	2.77	3.31	3.63	3.86
--	------	------	------	------

Critical Values for the
difference between two means
Q .95 (r, infinity) $\sqrt{\text{KMS error}}$

	19.4	23.2	25.4	27.0
--	------	------	------	------

^aObserved differences between treatment means, not significant at the .05 level of confidence.

The analysis of variance test displayed no overall significant difference in the desirability of societal values among the test schools at the .05 level of confidence. The Q test likewise found no significant differences at the .05 confidence level between the test schools.

As there were no significant differences in the desirability of societal values among the test schools, Hypothesis Thirteen is accepted.

The results from the test of Hypothesis Twelve suggested that a combination of the socioeconomic composition of the test schools and a breakdown of the schools into student groups on the basis of their degree of athletic participation both accounted for the significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values found among the respective test schools.

The results from the test of Hypothesis Thirteen indicated that neither the socioeconomic makeup of the schools nor the degree of athletic participation by students within the schools created significant differences among the test schools in the societal values tested for.

Step Six

The hypothesis treated in this step was:

Hypothesis Fourteen: There is no positive, significant correlation among the five test schools between the desirability of student sportsmanship values and the support each

school provides in the form of number of coaches per sport, number of sports offered, and funds budgeted for interscholastic athletics per senior male.

The data used to test Hypothesis Eleven was secured through use of a questionnaire given to the principals and athletic directors of the respective test schools. The results of the questionnaire are recorded in Table 16.

Data collected included information on the number of coaches utilized per sport, the number of sports offered, and the athletic funds available per senior male in the respective test schools.

The researcher used the rank correlation coefficient to determine if a positive correlation existed between sportsmanship values and the relative school standing on the three criteria referred to above. The resultant correlation coefficient was .60 as indicated in Table 16. This, however, was not significant at the .05 confidence level.

As there was no significant correlation between school sportsmanship values and the relative school standing on the three stated criteria, Hypothesis Fourteen is accepted.

TABLE 16

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOTAL SCHOOL EXPENDITURES
ON INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS AND DESIRABILITY
OF SCHOOL SPORTSMANSHIP VALUES

	School 1	School 2	School 3	School 4	School 5
Number of sports offered	10	10	4	8	7
Coaches per sport	1.4	2.4	1.0	1.8	1.9
Interscholastic athletic dollars per senior boy	151.18	175.61	85.56	106.01	225.36
Mean percent of school sportsmanship values	50.5	47.6	45.6	41.1	46.0

Coefficient of Rank Correlation

<u>Schools</u>	<u>x</u>	<u>y</u>	<u>d</u>	<u>d²</u>
1	1	3	-2	4
2	2	1	1	1
3	4	5	-1	1
4	5	4	1	1
5	3	2	1	1
				<u>1</u>
				$\Sigma d^2 = 8$

$$r = 1 - \frac{6(\Sigma d^2)}{n(n^2 - 1)}$$

$$r = .60$$

Key: x - Schools' relative standing on sportsmanship values.
y - Schools' relative standing on expenditures for personnel, programs, and participants.
d - Differences between x and y.
d² - Differences squared.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS

It is the intention of the researcher to consider the results, rationale, and inferences of the analyzed data in this chapter. Each step, as it was presented in Chapter IV, will be treated separately and followed by discussion. Steps One and Two are composed of primary hypotheses, while Steps Three, Four, Five, and Six are composed of secondary hypotheses. (Table 17 summarizes the test results of all hypotheses.)

Discussion of Step One

The hypotheses in Step One were designed to determine if significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values existed among selected subgroups of the student body. As previously acknowledged, the student groups were formed on the basis of their relationship to interscholastic athletics (athletic participant, spectator, and nonspectator).

Tests of Hypotheses One, Two, and Three revealed that significant differences existed among the specified subgroups of the student body; specifically, between the nonspectator and athletic participant groups and between the nonspectator and spectator groups. Accordingly, the researcher has inferred that the degree of participation in interscholastic athletics in which a group of students is involved influences

TABLE 17

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Hypotheses	Groups and Variables Analyzed	Group Differences in Sportsmanship Values	Group Differences in Societal Values	Correlations of Two Variables
1	Athletic Participant Spectator	No significant differences		
2	Athletic Participant Nonspectator	Significant differences		
3	Spectator Nonspectator	Significant differences		
4	Athletic Participant Spectator		No significant differences	
5	Athletic Participant Nonspectator		No significant differences	
6	Spectator Nonspectator		No significant differences	
7	Athletic Participant Test Scores			Positive and Significant
8	Spectator Test Scores			Positive and Significant
9	Nonspectator Test Scores			Positive and Significant

TABLE 17--Continued

Hypotheses	Groups and Variables Analyzed	Group Differences in Sportsmanship Values	Group Differences in Societal Values	Correlations of Two Variables
10	Influence of Student Socioeconomic Levels	Significant dif- ferences		
11	Influence of Student Socioeconomic Levels		No significant differences	
12	Test Schools	Significant dif- ferences		
13	Test Schools		No significant differences	
14	School Athletic Sup- port School Sportsmanship Values			Not significant

the desirability of their sportsmanship values. Moreover, as the nonspectator group was found to exhibit a higher degree of desirable sportsmanship values than either of the other two groups, the researcher has also inferred that those students who view and/or participate in interscholastic athletics tend to possess less desirable sportsmanship values than those who neither view nor participate in them.

These results more or less conform to the findings of other studies having similar emphases. Kistler and Richardson, as noted in Chapter II, also found less desirable sportsmanship values on behalf of athletic participants when compared with nonparticipants on the college level. Neither of these men, however, made distinctions between spectators and nonspectators.

The explanations offered for the findings of Step One are primarily those of the researcher. It is his contention that participation in interscholastic athletics as it is presently conducted has contributed to a lessening of desirable student sportsmanship values. A contributing factor toward this development has been the great emphasis and pressure toward the winning of athletic contests exerted by the community, the coaching staffs, and the varying components of the school. This contention has been reinforced by the studies conducted by Laughter, Crawford, and Harvey as reported earlier in Chapter II. These studies have implied that many coaches teach unethical or questionable strategies

in order to achieve victory. These strategies are often condoned and rationalized by coaches, athletes, and school officials as being part of the game and a necessary evil for producing winning teams. It is further implied from the related research in Chapter II that these attitudes are imparted to and translated into belief and action by athletic participants.

The spectator group, as noted previously, also possessed less desirable sportsmanship values in comparison to the nonspectator group. The researcher has attributed this result primarily to the following factors: exposure to the strategies of interscholastic athletics, common athletic interests and associations with athletic participants, negative spectatorship in athletics in addition to interscholastic athletics, and exposure to athletic participants and coaches who have served as peer and adult models to this group.

The preceding inferences drawn by the researcher have substantial support from the studies conducted by Coleman (see page 23). In essence, Coleman's emphasis and the researcher's inferences are based upon the great influence that the interscholastic athletic program has upon the student body.

The nonspectator group, faring significantly better than either of the other two groups in terms of the desirability of sportsmanship values, was not exposed to the same degree to the strategies, associations, and pressures that

the other two groups experienced. Eighty percent of this group had part-time jobs and, for the most part, had little time to view, learn, or participate in many of the unsportsmanlike strategies which seem to take place in interscholastic athletics.⁶¹ Perhaps this group, more than either of the other two groups, inculcated into their beliefs the stereotype values of fair play preached by many community and national leaders.

Discussion of Step Two

The hypotheses in Step Two were designed to determine if (1) significant differences in the desirability of selected societal values existed among specified subgroups of the student body (athletic participant, spectator, and non-spectator) and (2) if the values attributed to athletic participation transfer in a positive and significant manner to the societal values held by students (those values tested for).

Tests of Hypotheses Four, Five, and Six revealed that no significant differences in the desirability of societal values existed among the specified student groups at the .05 level of confidence. Inherent in this result was the rejection of the transferability of the values allegedly received from participation in interscholastic athletics to the

⁶¹Robert J. Laughter, "Socio-Psychological Aspects of the Development of Athletic Practice and Sports Ethics."

societal values held by students.

The preceding results suggest that (1) the degree of student group participation in interscholastic athletics does not influence significantly the societal values held by the group and (2) participation in interscholastic athletics does not foster the transference of values received in athletics, if any, to the societal values held by students in a positive and significant manner. These inferences are based upon both the results of this study and the way in which interscholastic athletics are presently conducted in the five test schools.

Many prominent leaders in athletics have maintained that values associated with participation in interscholastic athletics (i.e., responsibility, cooperation, loyalty, courage, discipline, etc.) carry over, in a positive manner, to the everyday life situations of the athletic participants. If the preceding statement had merit, and assuming that the nonathletic participants were not involved in activities that facilitated values similar to those derived from interscholastic athletics, the researcher's data should have revealed significant differences in the desirability of societal values among the student groups. In addition, the athletic participant group would have been expected to have scored significantly higher than either of the other two groups.

The explanation offered for the findings of Step Two are based upon the present status of many interscholastic

athletic programs. As indicated in the discussion of Step One, great emphasis and pressure presently exist toward the winning of interscholastic athletic contests.⁶² This prevailing condition, perhaps, does not allow for sufficient time and the proper atmosphere for coaches to devote to the fostering of student moral character and behavior, nor does it, perhaps, encourage the hiring of coaches and athletic personnel primarily on the basis of their moral character and teaching ability. These shortcomings possibly result in the existence of a multitude of athletic personnel who do not have the time nor the inclination to coach for the transference of positive athletic values to the day-to-day activities of students.

Discussion of Step Three

The hypotheses in Step Three were designed to determine from the results of the student inventories the nature of and extent to which the group performances on one value inventory carried over to their performances on the second value inventory. The researcher tried to satisfy this objective by obtaining the correlation coefficient of the collective pairs of test scores of each individual in each of the three student groups (athletic participant, spectator, and

⁶²Henry Steele Commager, "A Historian Looks at the High School" in The High School in a New Era, ed. by S. Chase and H. Anderson (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958), pp. 11-12.

nonspectator). The researcher also attempted to explore the rationale behind the existing correlation coefficients within each group.

In order to compare properly each group's performance on each of the value inventories, the researcher computed a z-score for each group's test result. The z-score expresses how many standard deviations an item is above or below the mean of the set of data to which it belongs. It is very desirable to use in the comparison of different kinds of groups as in the present study.

The most substantial and significant correlation coefficient was obtained by the spectator group. Its .57 coefficient for eighty-six pairs of test scores was significant at the .01 confidence level. In each of its tests, the spectator group had a z-score of $-.11$, indicating that the group performed equally below the mean on each inventory. This negative consistency of results of group performance from one value inventory to another was visibly borne out as the spectator group scored lowest of all groups on both inventories.

In attempting to uncover possible explanations for the relatively low scores of the spectator group, the researcher discovered somewhat of a relationship between the spectator group and the lower-middle socioeconomic group. The latter group, as did the spectator group, also had the lowest group performance of all groups of its kind (socioeconomic) on both inventories. The performance of the

combination of these groups appears in the lower-middle spectator cell in Tables 2 and 5. The tables reveal that this group came close to possessing two of the lowest-scoring cells on both inventories. It is interesting to note that the spectator group was composed of 43 percent of the lower-middle socioeconomic class.

In view of the low performances of the preceding groups and their interaction with each other, the researcher has formulated possible explanations for this development. The researcher feels that many students in the lower-middle socioeconomic class experience special pressures because of their class status--pressures which could ultimately have a negative effect on their value structure. Robert Bell, writing on social class, has concurred with this view by noting that "there are many high school educated parents in the lower middle class that are extremely compulsive about their sons growing up to be professionals. . . . The compulsiveness of the parental drive has implications ranging from parent-child conflict to the actual psychological breakdown of the unsuccessful child."⁶³ The researcher contends that parent child relationships of the preceding type are conducive to unhealthy value structures on the part of children. In terms of the present research, such relationships could have been a contributing factor to the comparatively low test performances

⁶³Robert Bell, The Sociology of Education: A Source Book (Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press, Inc., 1962), p. 145.

of both the lower-middle class and spectator groups in this study.

On the basis of the student information blanks, the researcher noted that the spectator group, as compared with the nonspectator group, had 14 percent fewer students holding part-time jobs. The researcher feels that work experience could have possibly contributed to the desirability of the societal values held by students, especially in some of the areas tested for. In terms of sportsmanship values, the researcher previously referred to the relatively low performance of the spectator group and the possible reasons behind their performance.

Whether or not the preceding rationales explain the low performance of the spectator group, further investigation in this area is merited.

The correlation coefficient of the 114 pairs of test scores of the athletic participants was .20, significant at the .05 confidence level. The computation of the z-score indicated that this group performed substantially better on the societal values than on the sportsmanship values. However, both scores were below the mean of the total 279 pairs of test scores. The performance on the societal value inventory merited a z-score of $-.01$, while their performance on the sportsmanship value inventory merited a z-score of $-.09$. In essence, the somewhat normative performance of the athletic participants on societal values was not carried over

to their performance on sportsmanship values. The researcher has suggested that participation in interscholastic athletics by this group was responsible for their relatively low performance on the sportsmanship inventory.

The nonspectator group with a student composition of 18 percent upper-middle-class students, 36 percent lower-middle-class students, and 46 percent upper-lower-class students performed highest on each value inventory. The z-scores on the seventy-nine pairs of test scores, however, revealed that the nonspectator group performed substantially better on the sportsmanship value inventory than on the societal value inventory. Their z-scores were $+0.26$ for the sportsmanship value inventory and $+0.14$ for the societal value inventory. In the researcher's judgment, the relatively high performance of this group on the sportsmanship inventory was not substantially carried over to their performance on the societal value inventory. The low correlation coefficient of the pairs of test scores of the nonspectator group ($.26$) has reinforced this judgment.

The researcher feels that perhaps the favorable test results of the nonspectator group might have possibly resulted from one, or a combination of, the following rationales: (1) lack of exposure to interscholastic athletics, (2) benefits derived from work experience, and (3) a lower degree of parental pressure and drive for academic success.

Only one of the three groups (spectator) displayed

consistency in its performances from one inventory to another. Nevertheless, the correlation result of the spectator group has reinforced the thesis forwarded by Peck and Havighurst which has suggested that "individual character is not merely a set of internal rules or situation-bound habits but . . . a persisting pattern of attitudes and motives which produce a rather predictable kind of quality of moral behavior."⁶⁴ In essence, Peck and Havighurst have theorized that, regardless of the specific moral values being tested, an individual or group would display relatively the same scoring pattern on each value tested for.

The athletic participant and nonspectator groups, which did not display a strong consistency in its performances from one inventory to another, have reinforced yet another theory on values and character. Hartshone and May in their studies found that moral behavior was highly specific to each situation and that a relative lack of transference between values existed.⁶⁵ This conclusion was borne out by the relatively low intercorrelation coefficients found among the individual traits they had examined. In brief, Hartshone and May expected individuals to score or behave differently or independently when exposed to different values and circumstances.

⁶⁴Robert Havighurst and Robert Peck, The Psychology of Character Development (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1960), p. 164.

⁶⁵H. Hartshone and M. A. May, Studies in the Nature of Character, Vol. III (New York: Macmillan Company, 1928).

The researcher investigated the performance consistency between values in this study in order to either lend support to athletic leaders in promoting the theory forwarded by Havighurst and Peck or lend support to those criticizing it. This theory has assumed the existence of a consistency of performance among values; it would have enabled athletic leaders to suggest that improvement in sportsmanship values through interscholastic athletics would simultaneously improve values in other related areas. Unfortunately, on the basis of the findings in Step Three, the researcher cannot endorse completely either the Peck and Havighurst thesis nor the Hartshorne and May theory. The researcher contends that the unique experiences, associations, and environmental exposures of individuals and groups, regardless of their general moral character, could influence significantly individual and group performances in unexpected and deviant ways on various values. In the values tested for in this study, group experiences appeared to have influenced varied performances on the sportsmanship inventory.

Discussion of Step Four

The hypotheses in Step Four were designed to determine if the socioeconomic level of students influence significant differences in the desirability of student sportsmanship and societal values among student groups (athletic participant, spectator, and nonspectator).

Test of Hypothesis Ten revealed that the socioeconomic status of students did relate to differences in the desirability of student sportsmanship values among the specified student groups. Significant differences were found to exist at the .01 confidence level between the upper-middle and lower-middle classes and at the .05 confidence level between the upper-middle and upper-lower classes. The interaction score of the socioeconomic variable and the athletic participation variable revealed substantial interaction between the two variables which further suggested the influence each variable has on the other.

It is quite evident, however, that differences in socioeconomic levels among the student body were not the overriding factor for the significant differences found among the three specified student groups. Evidence pertaining to this point was illustrated in the performances of the athletic participant and nonspectator groups. The athletic participant group, which scored relatively low on the sportsmanship inventory, was composed substantially of students (42 percent) from the upper-middle class--a class which scored the highest of all socioeconomic classes on the sportsmanship value inventory. The nonspectator group, which scored the highest of all student groups on the sportsmanship inventory, had only 18 percent of the students from the upper-middle class. The researcher thus inferred that the primary factor for the existence of significant differences in the

desirability of sportsmanship values among the specified student groups was the nature of each group's relationship to interscholastic athletics.

Differences in sportsmanship value scores among the three socioeconomic levels have conformed more or less to studies which have treated the social-class structure. Hollingshead in his study concluded that "there is a functional relationship between the class position of an adolescent's family and his social behavior in the community . . . that adolescents who have been reared in families that possess different class cultures may be expected to follow different behavior patterns in their responses to situations they encounter in their participation in the community's social life . . . that the home an adolescent comes from conditions in a very definite manner the way he behaves in his relations with the school, the church, the job, recreation, his peers and his family."⁶⁶ Warner in his study reinforced the preceding conclusion by suggesting that each social class develops patterns of behavior in a value system which differentiates it from others.⁶⁷

The data on the sportsmanship inventory in Table 8 have tended to reinforce the preceding studies as significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values

⁶⁶A. B. Hollingshead, Elmtown's Youth (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949), p. 441.

⁶⁷Warner, Democracy in Jonesville, p. 65.

did exist among the socioeconomic classes examined.

Test of Hypothesis Eleven revealed that the socioeconomic level of students did not influence significant differences in the desirability of student societal values among the specified student groups. This development existed chiefly because there were no significant differences found in the desirability of societal values at the .05 confidence level among the three student groups.

As indicated in Chapter I under the section entitled "Assumptions and Limitations," the five test schools were composed of students from primarily three socioeconomic levels. This was somewhat of a narrow range when compared to the five and six levels found in large city schools. This reduction in the socioeconomic spectrum possibly explains the lack of significant differences in societal values found among the socioeconomic classes of this study. A second rationale has suggested that the lower two classes perhaps have utilized the middle class as their reference group for societal values.

To recapitulate, the objectives of Hypotheses Ten and Eleven were designed to determine whether significant differences found in the desirability of student values among the specified groups were not only the result of differences in the degree of group athletic participation but also due, to an extent, to the socioeconomic composition of the student groups. This, in essence, is what the tests of the hypotheses have revealed.

Discussion of Step Five

The hypotheses in Step Five were designed to determine if there were significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship and societal values among the five test schools.

Test of Hypothesis Twelve revealed that significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values existed between Schools One and Four at the .01 confidence level and between Schools One and Three, and Two and Four at the .05 confidence level. Differences between other schools were not significant.

It is interesting to note that the two schools which had significantly higher sportsmanship value scores than the other schools were from areas of higher socioeconomic levels. School One had 59 percent of its senior boys from the upper-middle class, while School Two had 48 percent of its senior boys from this same socioeconomic class. Accordingly, Schools Three and Four had only 10 and 15 percent, respectively, of their senior boys from the upper-middle class.

The researcher primarily accounts for the significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values among test schools on the basis of the socioeconomic composition of the test schools and the degree of athletic participation by students within each test school. The overall quality of the test schools' interscholastic athletic programs might also

have contributed to the existent significant differences, but this variable was not examined.

Test of Hypothesis Thirteen did not reveal any significant differences in the desirability of societal values among the five test schools. This result has reinforced the findings of Steps Two and Four in terms of the lack of significant differences in the desirability of societal values found among student groups. The researcher has suggested that this result was, in part, another indication of the lack of transferability of the values accrued from athletic participation to the day-to-day societal values tested for and held by students. The result has also suggested that the athletic personnel in the test schools have not coached for value transfer but have conducted their interscholastic athletic programs for other objectives. A final factor contributing to the lack of significant differences in the desirability of societal values among the test schools was that differences in the socioeconomic composition of each test school were not large enough to influence significant differences in societal values.

In essence, the results from the test of Hypothesis Thirteen indicated that neither the socioeconomic composition of the test schools nor the degree of athletic participation by students within the test schools influenced significant differences in the societal values tested for among the five schools examined.

Discussion of Step Six

The hypothesis in Step Six was designed to determine if there was a substantial, positive relationship between the desirability of each test school's sportsmanship values and the support each test school provided in the form of number of coaches per sport, number of varsity sports offered, and funds budgeted for interscholastic athletics per senior male.

The test of Hypothesis Fourteen revealed that a positive but not significant correlation of .60 between the two variables under examination was obtained.

It was the intention of the researcher, partly through Hypothesis Fourteen, to have identified some of the elements in interscholastic athletic programs which are necessary in deriving positive student sportsmanship values; however, additional research is needed to accomplish this task. The present correlation, based on just three criteria, has only been reflective of school district wealth and, perhaps indirectly, each school's attitude toward interscholastic athletics. In any event, the three criteria used were not representative of other elements which could have been influential in the development of desirable student sportsmanship values. The attainment of the present correlation, however, does present a framework for further investigation of this nature.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The intent of this chapter is to present a brief summary of selected chapter sections followed by the researcher's conclusions and recommendations.

Problem Statement

The impetus for this study began with the continued growth of unsubstantiated claims made on behalf of interscholastic athletics by many of its leaders. Some of these leaders have claimed that athletics are responsible for many of the attitudinal and value formations that occur among various subgroups of the student body. Because the efforts to develop athletic programs are costly and time-consuming, the researcher has posed two primary questions concerning the worth of interscholastic athletics:

1. Do significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values exist among student groups associated with interscholastic athletics in varying degrees?

2. Do significant differences in the desirability of selected societal values exist among student groups associated with interscholastic athletics in varying degrees?

The teachers of athletics believe that a fundamental purpose of interscholastic athletics is to develop desirable

student sportsmanship and societal values. Therefore, the researcher's inquiry is: Are such desirable values facilitated through interscholastic athletics and, if so, are they carried into day-to-day activity by the students?

Hypotheses

The overarching objective of this study was to determine the nature and extent of the relationship, if any, between the values of student groups and interscholastic athletics. The researcher thus attempted to determine if significant differences in the desirability of selected values existed among and between specified groups of the student body.

In order to satisfy the preceding overall objective, the researcher tested fourteen null hypotheses which are summarized in the following six steps:

1. There are no significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values among specified groups of the student body.
2. There are no significant differences in the desirability of selected societal values among specified groups of the student body.
3. There is no positive, significant correlation between the societal and sportsmanship values in each of the three specified student groups.
4. The socioeconomic level of students does not influence

significant differences in the desirability of selected student values among specified student groups.

5. There are no significant differences in the desirability of selected student values among the five test schools.

6. There is no positive, significant correlation among the five test schools between the desirability of student sportsmanship values and the support each school provides in the form of number of coaches per sport, number of sports offered, and funds budgeted for interscholastic athletics per senior male.

Related Research

A great wealth of material has been written on values and athletics within the past three decades. The researcher chose to investigate only those studies which were most related to the research at hand. All reviews of research were encompassed within four areas: (1) character and value studies, (2) interscholastic athletics in the schools, (3) sportsmanship studies, and (4) opinions from leaders in athletics.

From the related literature, the researcher noted the changeability of values and the extent to which they were exposed to and influenced by environmental factors; the great attention, importance, and status attached to interscholastic athletics in the school environment; the negative influence

or absence of desirable influence interscholastic athletics has had on student sportsmanship values; and the potential interscholastic athletics has for becoming a vehicle for inculcating desirable student values.

The related research has given rise to questions concerning the value interscholastic athletics has in today's school curriculum. It was, therefore, the desire of the researcher to resolve some of these questions.

Procedures

The student population for this study was drawn from five high schools, most of which made up the partial membership of several athletic conferences. Within each high school, the majority of the senior male enrollment was used as the test population. The test students responded to one information blank, one sportsmanship inventory, and one inventory on selected societal values. One information blank was also given to the athletic directors of each school system participating in the study.

The students in the test population were categorized according to specified characteristics and then subdivided on the basis of their socioeconomic level, their school membership, and primarily on their relationship to interscholastic athletics--athletic participant, spectator, and nonspectator.

The researcher personally administered both inventories to the test population, allowing a one-week interval

between the two test administrations. All testing was completed within a three-week period at the near conclusion of the interscholastic sports calendar for the 1967-68 school year.

The high schools utilized in this study were chosen on the basis of their total school membership, senior male population, and proximity to the University of Massachusetts.

The primary statistical treatments used on the data required use of the two-way analysis of variance, the Q test, correlation coefficients, and percentage group scores. The data were primarily housed in three two-way statistical tables--one, of nine cells (3 x 3); and two, of fifteen cells (3 x 5).

Findings

Test results relating to the two primary hypotheses were:

1. No significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values existed between the athletic participant and spectator groups.
2. Significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values existed ($P .01$) between the nonspectator and athletic participant groups.
3. Significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values existed ($P .05$) between the nonspectator and spectator groups.

4. No significant differences in the desirability of societal values existed between the spectator and athletic participant groups.

5. No significant differences in the desirability of societal values existed between the nonspectator and athletic participant groups.

6. No significant differences in the desirability of societal values existed between the nonspectator and spectator groups.

Other findings were:

7. There is a positive, significant correlation ($P .05$) between the societal and sportsmanship values of the athletic participant group ($r=.20$).

8. There is a positive, significant correlation ($P .01$) between the societal and sportsmanship values of the spectator group ($r=.57$).

9. There is a positive, significant correlation ($P .05$) between the societal and sportsmanship values of the nonspectator group ($r=.57$).

10. The socioeconomic level of students influenced significant differences in the desirability of sportsmanship values among specified student groups.

11. The socioeconomic level of students did not influence significant differences in the desirability of societal values among specified student groups.

12. Significant differences in the desirability of

sportsmanship values existed ($P .01$) between Schools One and Four and between ($P .05$) Schools One and Three and Two and Four.

13. No significant differences in the desirability of selected societal values existed among the test schools.

14. There is no significant correlation among the five test schools between the desirability of student sportsmanship values and the support each school provided in the form of number of coaches per sport, number of sports offered, and funds budgeted for interscholastic athletics per senior male.

Conclusions

The findings of this study have enabled the researcher to formulate several conclusions and inferences based upon the test results of the present study.

The data revealed that significant differences existed in the desirability of sportsmanship values among specified student groups: athletic participant, spectator, and nonspectator. These differences favored the student group which was least associated with interscholastic athletics--the nonspectator group. The athletic participant and spectator groups, contrary to prevailing literature, displayed the least desirable sportsmanship values. The researcher, therefore, is of the opinion that interscholastic athletics, as presently conducted in the schools examined, has a negative influence on the sportsmanship values of

athletic participants and student spectators.

Numerous proponents of athletics have advocated that interscholastic athletics has contributed to the promotion of good citizenship, the inculcation of desirable societal values, and the betterment of moral character of those students participating in interschool athletics. The researcher, within the context of this study, attempted to examine some of the preceding attributes by determining if significant differences in the desirability of selected societal values existed among specified student groups. The statements of proponents of athletics have led the public and the researcher to assume that those groups closely associated with interscholastic athletics would score significantly higher on societal-type values than those groups not associated with interscholastic athletics. The study data revealed, however, that no significant differences in the desirability of the societal values tested for existed among the specified student groups. This result has led the researcher to infer that interscholastic athletics, as it is presently conducted in the schools examined, does not contribute significantly to or influence the development of desirable societal values, of the kind tested for, among student groups. The researcher also inferred from this result that student participation in interscholastic athletics in the schools surveyed does not foster the transference of values received in athletics, if any, to the societal values held by students in a positive

and significant manner.

The findings of this study also question those leaders in athletics and education who have advocated that there is an existence of unity, consistency, and continuity of individual moral character (Peck and Havighurst). This theory has assumed that individuals would perform relatively the same on all moral values tested for. On the basis of the results of the present study, only one student group in three displayed a substantially high correlation between the two values examined. Therefore, even given the assumption that interscholastic athletics does influence desirable sportsmanship values among student groups, it cannot be assumed that the positive nature of a group's performance on sportsmanship values would automatically carry over to their performance on societal values.

Recommendations

It is the intent of the researcher to formulate recommendations in two areas: first, recommendations which concern the operation of the interscholastic athletic program; and, second, recommendations for future research.

It is evident to the researcher that both the over-emphasis in the winning of athletic contests and the misunderstanding of the educational goals of the interscholastic athletic program as expressed by the behavior of the school and community are detrimental to the development of desirable

student values. It is, therefore, suggested that school systems which administer interscholastic athletic programs examine and deliberate on the following recommendations:

1. Evaluate athletic coaches, not on games won or lost, but on the behavior or changed behavior displayed by their athletes.
2. Hire coaches who have good standing on moral character, personality, knowledge of the learning process, philosophy of interscholastic athletics, coaching skill, sportsmanship behavior, college training, and coaching experience.
3. Instruct athletic personnel to coach for transfer of training to student behavior off the field.
4. Encourage coaches and league organizations to reach agreement between rule interpretations and accepted moral codes.
5. Encourage coaches to relate closely a player's behavior in athletic contests with its moral implications.
6. Encourage athletic personnel to use sports films as a teaching aid to detect and evaluate moral and immoral behavior and the consequences and alternatives associated.
7. Insist that coaches, teachers, and school administrators serve as good models for students in both sportsmanship and moral behavior.
8. Encourage coaches to acquaint themselves with each athletic participant's background and home situation.
9. Educate and alert the public to the objectives of

the interscholastic athletic program.

10. Initiate a planned educational program on sportsmanship behavior for staff, students, community, and news media (in-service training, workshops, and clinics).

11. Define sportsmanship behavior as it applies to the various school and student activities.

12. Encourage athletic participants to serve as good models in moral and sportsmanship behavior for the student body.

13. Utilize athletic associations to penalize and enforce school infractions of sportsmanship behavior.

14. Encourage athletic leagues to award trophies for good school sportsmanship behavior (spectators and participants) during athletic contests.

15. Interpret the rules and their rationale of the individual sports to athletic participants and spectators.

16. Instruct students and the public on the best ways to enjoy sports from the standpoint of good sportsmanship (sports appreciation program).

17. Accompany interscholastic athletic competition with the social interaction of participants after athletic contests.

18. Initiate in a positive manner a continuous program of public relations for all sports in the interscholastic athletic program.

19. Allow no distinction between so-called major and

minor sports.

20. Ensure that all athletic policies contribute to the educational welfare of the athlete, spectator, and nonspectator.

21. Promote the interscholastic athletic program as part of the school curriculum, in harmony with the purposes and philosophy of secondary education.

22. Equip students with problem-solving techniques for use in conflict situations involving sportsmanship and moral behavior.

23. Encourage the athletic staff to be closely coordinated with the general instructional program and properly articulated with other departments of the school.

24. Ensure utilization of the personal guidance possibilities between coach and player.

25. Provide adequate numbers of coaches per sport in relation to the number of participants.

26. Provide support of the coach where unjust criticism is made.

27. Offer a wide variety of sports in the interscholastic athletic program.

28. Ensure adequate facilities and resources for each interscholastic sport.

29. Encourage and provide for continuing research and experimentation in interscholastic athletics.

30. Require objective periodic evaluation of the

interscholastic athletic program to ensure that objectives are being reached.

Many of the preceding recommendations should not only be implemented in the senior high school but also throughout the elementary and junior high schools. This would enable athletic personnel to initiate sound programs, in terms of sportsmanship and moral behavior, at a time when the attitudes and values of younger students are somewhat more flexible and malleable than they will be at the high school level. As the home is the most influential element in influencing the development of student values, working with and through the home in some capacity is deemed desirable. In a concluding note, athletic personnel should be reminded that values through athletics do not come automatically; they require careful planning accentuated by proper leadership.

In an attempt to obtain a greater understanding of the influence interscholastic athletics has on students in the area of values, the following recommendations for future research are suggested:

1. Examination of the relationship between selected values of secondary school coaches and selected values of members of their athletic teams.
2. Examination of the relationship between specific values and athletic participants grouped by the individual sports participated in.
3. Examination of the relationship between specific

values and student groups associated with interscholastic athletics in various degrees.

4. Identification of those elements which comprise a successful interscholastic athletic program.

5. Further investigation of the intercorrelation of various types of values.

6. Examination of the extent to which transfer of training to student behavior off the field does exist when such transfer is taught.

7. Development of more sophisticated instrumentation to measure student attitudes and values.

The researcher is cognizant that this study questions the worth of interscholastic athletics, as it is presently conducted, in the areas of sportsmanship and societal values. The researcher, however, is of the opinion that interscholastic athletics does have the potential to become a positive influence in contributing to the development of desirable student values. This potential can be realized only if proper changes in the present program are undertaken. It is, therefore, hoped that school administrators, athletic directors, and coaches will reexamine their own interscholastic athletic programs and initiate the appropriate changes.

APPENDIX A
STUDENT INFORMATION BLANK

Name: _____ High School: _____

1. If you were a member of a varsity athletic team during your school career, check the sports in which you participated by placing the number of years of participation in the blanks below:

basketball	_____	spring track	_____	hockey	_____	tennis	_____
baseball	_____	football	_____	skiing	_____	wrestling	_____
cross country	_____	golf	_____	soccer	_____	lacross	_____
winter track	_____	gymnastics	_____	swimming	_____	other,	_____
						specify	_____

2. There are _____ varsity athletic teams representing your school; they play a total of _____ athletic contests with other high schools. To the best of your ability, how many of these _____ contests during the past year (9/67-6/68) did you attend as a spectator? _____
3. List the four varsity sports teams in your school which you have seen perform most frequently in athletic contests during the past year (9/67-6/68) and estimate the number of games you have seen each team play.

<u>sports teams</u> <u>seen most frequently</u>	<u>number of</u> <u>games seen</u>
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

4. How much formal education did your father have? (Check the appropriate blank.)

_____ some grade school	_____ some college
_____ finished grade school	_____ finished college
_____ some high school	_____ attended graduate school or professional school after college
_____ finished high school	_____ don't know

5. How much formal education did your mother have? (Check the appropriate blank.)
- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> some grade school | <input type="checkbox"/> some college |
| <input type="checkbox"/> finished grade school | <input type="checkbox"/> finished college |
| <input type="checkbox"/> some high school | <input type="checkbox"/> attended graduate school or professional school after college |
| <input type="checkbox"/> finished high school | <input type="checkbox"/> don't know |
6. What is your father's occupation; what does he do? _____
(If he is not living, what was his occupation?) _____
-
7. Does your mother have a job outside the home? (Check the appropriate blank.)
- ☐ yes, full time ☐ yes, part time ☐ no
8. Are your parents living?
- ☐ both living
☐ only mother living
☐ only father living
☐ neither living
9. Do you earn any money by working outside the home? (not counting summer work)
- _____ (yes or no)
- If yes, how many hours a week do you work?
- _____ (hours worked)
10. How many brothers and sisters do you have?
- _____
11. Check those following items which are found in your home.
- ☐ daily newspaper
☐ weekly or monthly magazine
☐ book collection
☐ television, if color indicate it
☐ radio
☐ stereo, hi-fi
☐ car, indicate the number of cars and their year and make
- _____
- _____
12. Do your parents belong to any social organizations or clubs (including church)? _____
- If so, how many? _____

APPENDIX B

INFORMATION BLANK--SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

1. Name of high school:	2. Total senior male enrollment:						
	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Sports Offered	Games Played	Team Record	Coaches per Sport	Budget per Sport	Entrance Fees	League Membership
3. Varsity athletic teams participating in interscholastic athletics (check the appropriate sports which are offered in your school)							
BASEBALL							
BASKETBALL							
CROSS COUNTRY							
WINTER TRACK							
SPRING TRACK							
FOOTBALL							
GOLF							
GYMNASTICS							
4. Total number of games played per sport (from 4/67 to 4/68)							
5. Team records per sport (from 4/67 to 4/68)							
6. Number of coaches per sport							
7. Athletic budget per sport (excluding capital outlays, but including current annual costs per sport)							
HOCKEY							
SKIING							
SOCER							
SWIMMING							

	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Sports Offered	Games Played	Team Record	Coaches per Sport	Budget per Sport	Entrance Fees	League Member- ship
8. Student entrance fees per sport (home games only)							
9. League membership per sport							

TENNIS

WRESTLING

OTHER,
SPECIFY

APPENDIX C*

ACTION-CHOICE TESTS

for

COMPETITIVE SPORTS

SITUATIONS

By

Mary Jane Haskins, Ph.D.
Department of Physical Education
The Ohio State University

and

Betty Grant Hartman, Ph.D.
Department of Physical Education
MacMurray College

Instructions

The following are incidents which might occur in sports situations. With each incident are five alternative actions. You are to choose that alternative which most nearly reflects your feelings about the incident. Choose only one alternative. Place an (X) on the answer sheet opposite the letter of the alternative you prefer for each question.

*Used by the researcher to test student sportsman-
ship values.

1. A football team's linesman gathers hands full of grass or dirt to throw into the opposing line's faces. This enables them to break through the opponent's line freeing their backs to make long runs and score touchdowns.
 - a. It is the official's fault for failing to penalize the players for such actions.
 - b. As long as the officials can't see the linesman do this they might as well try it.
 - c. The opponents should throw dirt or grass at this team when they get the chance in order to pay them back.
 - d. The other team has equal opportunity to try the same thing, therefore, this team is justified in its actions.
 - e. The linesmen's actions are unfair to the opponents and not in the spirit of the game.

2. In little league baseball competition the coaches of some of the teams have been known to tell their players to participate in the "Stamp Act". The stamp act means that the players are to try to stamp on the umpire's feet whenever they can get close to him. The stamping is a means of protesting an umpire's decision. Whenever a disputed decision occurs the coach calls out "Stamp Act" and the players carry out the play.
 - a. Rather than argue, the players have an effective means of protesting the umpire's decision when they use the "Stamp Act".
 - b. The coach has no business telling his players to do such a thing.
 - c. The players should carry out the Stamp Act since the coach says this is a good maneuver.
 - d. This action is all right to use as long as the players do not really hurt the umpire by stamping on him.
 - e. This action is all right as long as the umpire knows why the players are doing the Stamp Act. It's all part of the game.

3. Before face masks on football helmets were legalized by the rules a team might wear them if the other team consented. Team A was playing team B. Team B's coach had consented to allow team A to wear masks. At half time the score was 21 to 0 in favor of Team A. Team B's coach protested the masks. Team B's coach heckled the officials all through the second half.
 - a. Team B's coach had a right to protest since his team was losing.
 - b. Team B's coach had no right to protest since he had already consented to team A wearing masks.
 - c. The coach was correct in protesting but not heckling the officials during the second half.
 - d. The officials should have allowed team B's protest and had team A remove the masks the second half.
 - e. Team B should have put on masks to even their chances, rather than protest team A's wearing them.

4. An outstanding All-American football player was known for his rough, tough play. When he started to tackle or block an opponent he never stopped even though the opponents might have handed the ball or they were obviously out of the play. When asked why he played this way he expressed the opinion that once he started for a player he could not stop. If he stopped suddenly he might injure himself.
 - a. Little regard for opponents made him an outstanding player. Those who play football should expect such action from opponents.
 - b. The All-American was right to avoid injury himself.
 - c. The All-American should be penalized for such roughness, especially when the person tackled or blocked was not involved in the play.
 - d. To play roughly is bad enough, but to out and out admit it was because he was protecting himself, is even worse.
 - e. This player is not a true All-American. Good players should consider their opponent's safety as well as personal safety. He should be able to stop.

5. Two rival teams in a well-known conference played a basketball game on one of these team's home court. During this game, the visiting team's star player was consistently booed whenever he missed a basket, pass, rebound, or maneuver. In the return game on the other team's court, the home crowd took revenge by booing all the players on the opposition. They were retaliating for what the other team's home crowd had done to their star.
 - a. Booing is a good device to use to rattle a player. If this could help the home team in the first game, such action is all right.
 - b. "Getting back" at the other team during the return game was justifiable under the circumstances.
 - c. Even though the star player had been booed the other team's crowd should not have paid them back.
 - d. Booing individual players does more good than booing the whole team. In the second game, the spectators should have singled out one player.
 - e. Players should learn to play under difficult situations. Having the crowd boo them helps them to ignore future experiences of the same nature.

6. A coach of a college football team taught the end player to use his knee on the head of the opposing backfield player. He was to use this whenever the opponent was trying to prevent the end tackling the kicker. After the end had used this maneuver several times the opposing blocker would become afraid of the end and let him by. The end player could never bring himself to follow his coach's instructions.

It is possible that player's knees can come in contact with an opponent's head during blocks, tackles, or evasive action: however, if this is done deliberately the player could be penalized.

 - a. Such an action in football is unnecessary. The coach who advised, and they player who would execute such action were wrong.
 - b. This action would be all right as long as the blocker is not injured.
 - c. The end player was right not to follow his coach's instructions.
 - d. The end player should follow his coach's instructions even though he felt the instructions were wrong.
 - e. This is a perfectly good maneuver to use in football. The coach was right in advising it and the player wrong not to do it.

7. You are a member of a volleyball team and during a game your opponents hit the ball over the net. The ball barely grazes your fingers as it flies out-of-bounds. If you were this player what would you do?
- Tell the referee you touched the ball without waiting to see if anyone noticed your touching it.
 - Wait to see if your teammates noticed your touching the ball. If they did not notice let the referee's decision stand.
 - Since the referee did not notice your touching the ball and it is his job to make decisions, let his decision stand.
 - Ask the opponents if they noticed whether you touched the ball. If they did not notice, do not report yourself to the referee.
 - Since you discover that the opponents noticed that you touched the ball you should report yourself to the referee.
8. Second basemen, according to the rules of the game, must step on or tag second base before throwing to first base in making a double play. The runner who runs to second base from first base is put out in this manner and if the baseman's throw reaches first base before the batter arrives, the batter is out and thus a double play (or two outs) is made. Some big-league second basemen have been known to deliberately pretend to touch or tag second base, but miss. This allows them to cut down on the time it takes to touch second base and throw to first base, and enables them to get more double plays.
- Since it is the umpire's job to tell whether or not the second baseman touches the base before he throws, it is all right for the baseman to pretend to touch to cut down on his time if he can get away with it.
 - The second baseman is breaking the rules and should not do this.
 - This maneuver does not always help the baseman to get a double play so he might as well try it.
 - This is all right for big league players to use, but school or minor league plays should not use it.
 - This is taking unfair advantage of the other team and therefore should not be done.
9. A baseball team that is losing a game, realizes that an opposing player was called safe at first on a trapped fly ball. The catcher of this team argues that the ball was not trapped but legally caught. The argument continues and the catcher calls the umpire names. The umpire finally evicts the catcher from the game.
- No player, regardless of the team he is on should argue with an official.
 - The catcher should not argue. He should expect the person who trapped the ball or some other teammate to do this.
 - It would be all right for a player or catcher to argue as long as he feels the umpire is wrong and he is right.
 - He was justified in arguing since his team was losing. If they had been ahead he did not need to argue.
 - A player is justified in arguing with the umpire since this is customary in baseball, but he should not call him names.

10. A soccer player receives a chest high pass and taps the ball down to the ground with his hand. The referee does not see this foul. (Soccer players are allowed to play the ball with their feet, not their hands). The soccer player goes on down the field with the ball.
 - a. The player should raise his hand to indicate his foul to the referee.
 - b. It is the referee's responsibility to see these fouls. If he fails to see them the player need not confess he fouled.
 - c. The opponents should tell the referee the player fouled.
 - d. As long as the player can get away with this action it is all right to use.
 - e. This action may have been accidental. If the player does this again the opponents should complain to the officials.

1. In a championship Little League Baseball game, the score was tied. In the final inning, with the last team at bat and a runner on third base, the following incident occurred: The third base coach, an adult, called to the rival team's pitcher and asked to see the ball. The young pitcher threw the ball to the coach, whereupon the coach stepped aside and let the ball go by. The runner on third base saw the ball rolling away and ran home scoring the winning run. There is nothing in the rules which states that such action is against the rules.
 - a. The umpire should make the runner go back to third base even though he did not break a rule.
 - b. The umpire should make the runner go back to third base, and speak to the adult about such tactics.
 - c. The pitcher should have been smart enough not to do such a thing, therefore, what happened was all right.
 - d. This is a perfectly good baseball maneuver and the adult coach was justified in using it.
 - e. Such action is all right for older baseball players, but not for use on Little League players.

2. Horse shows include events in which riders are judged on their ability and skill in riding. Other events involve judging the performance and appearance of the horse, not necessarily the skill of the rider, although a good rider can help a horse perform better. However, some horses perform well or poorly regardless of the skill of the rider.

During a horse show it became common knowledge that an outstanding horse, who was entered in an event where his performance was to be judged was easily upset by loud whistles. A rival stable, wishing the horse to lose and their horse to win, stationed people around the outside of the ring. These people were to whistle loudly whenever the horse went by. The horse was upset, performed poorly, and lost the event. The rival stable's horse won.

 - a. The whistling was unfair. The favored horse should be allowed to perform without distraction.
 - b. The judge should have allowed the favorite to win since he must be aware of the distracting influences.
 - c. The losing horse's owners should complain to the judges so they could stop the people whistling.
 - d. Since the favored horse's weakness was common knowledge, the rival stable's action was justified.
 - e. If the horse was really good and deserved to win, it should not be distracted by such actions and deserved to lose.

13. Certain basketball teams are coached to set up plays which cause the opponents to foul. Some players and coaches believe this is clever basketball since the opponents may foul out of the game, and their team may gain extra points by scoring on the free throws.
- Players should use such plays. The coaches are clever to direct their players in such fashion.
 - Players who disagree with this type of play may learn them if their coach so directs but should not use such plays.
 - Players should refuse to play for coaches who insist they use such plays.
 - The players should tell their coaches they don't approve of such plays but use them if he insists.
 - Officials, players, and coaches should agree to use such plays.
4. If a wrestler uses an illegal hold and hurts his opponent, the match is awarded to the victim. If an illegal hold is used and the opponent is not hurt, the opponent is awarded two points. During a wrestling match wrestler A used an illegal hold on wrestler B. The official awarded two points to wrestler B, but wrestler B's coach comes out and tells wrestler B he is hurt. Wrestler B insists he is all right but the coach says, "No -- you are hurt." The referee had to award the match to the "hurt" wrestler B.
- Since wrestler A used an illegal hold, wrestler B was right to pretending to be hurt and to take his coach's advise.
 - Wrestler B had no right to play "hurt" even though his coach told him to.
 - The referee should have been able to judge whether wrestler B was "hurt" or not. He should not have given the match to wrestler B.
 - The coach had no right to influence his wrestler B. His wrestler was put on-the-spot as was the official.
 - Wrestler A should not have used an illegal hold. Wrestler B's coach was right to tell his wrestler to be "hurt" to teach wrestler A a lesson.
5. When a member of a swimming team entered a race he deliberately moved slowly into his position in hopes that it would upset his opponents and make them take false starts. His teammates, entered in other races, did the same thing. Swimmers are allowed to take their time in getting into position. If, however, the swimmers are obviously stalling, they could be penalized. This is difficult for officials to determine.
- The opponents of these swimmers should learn not to be upset by such actions.
 - This is all right to try since it probably works only on poor swimmers.
 - This is all right since the opponents are not good enough to control their starting.
 - The opponents will eventually catch on and would actually profit by having this trick used against them.
 - These swimmers are taking unfair advantage of the opponents.

16. A rather good golfer constantly tries to improve his opponent's game. He constantly offers advice on every shot, tells the opponent what club to use, and so forth.
- The good golfer gives the appearance of knowing all there is to know. This is annoying to his opponent.
 - A good golfer should know that unasked-for advice may upset his opponents. He should refrain from this practice.
 - Such advice may be helpful to his opponents.
 - A good golfer should know that in tournament play a golfer may receive advice only from his caddy and therefore should not advise his opponents.
 - Since his intentions are to be helpful his actions shouldn't bother his opponents.
17. In basketball the spectators and players often attempt to put pressure on the officials by booing, talking, and yelling. This is a way of pressuring the officials into becoming aware that the players and spectators expect them to give the close decisions to their team.
- This is perfectly all right.
 - This is customarily done and is a good way of putting the officials "on their toes."
 - It is all right to yell and talk but not to boo.
 - The spectators should assume that the officials try to be fair, therefore, they should refrain from such action.
 - Such action probably does no good whatsoever so this is useless.
18. During a football game an ineligible pass receiver catches a long touchdown pass and scores. The officials fail to determine that the player was ineligible. The score is allowed to stand.
- The ineligible receiver should have confessed he was ineligible.
 - Since the officials did not see the error the player was justified in keeping his ineligibility secret.
 - The coach or teammates of the ineligible pass receiver should tell the officials about the error.
 - The players or coach of the opposing team should let the officials know they had made a mistake.
 - Since the officials did not see the error nothing should be done.

19. The crowd booed their basketball coach when he removed a player from the game. The crowd showed the coach, by their actions, that they wanted the player back in the game. After the game, the coach announced to the papers that he was justified in removing the player from the game since it was for the player's own protection.
- The crowd has a right to disagree with the coach.
 - The crowd should leave the decisions to the coach and refrain from criticizing.
 - The crowd has a right to disagree but should not boo.
 - The coach knows more about the game than the crowd so the crowd should realize this and stop their criticisms.
 - The crowd's action is not unequal, and is unimportant in its effect on players or coaches.
20. In informal golf matches when there are no officials to watch each competing player, some players fail to count all the strokes they take. This gives them better scores and sometimes they end up winning the match.
- The player who fails to count his strokes is actually harming his golf game. He never knows how well or how badly he is really playing.
 - Since this occurs in informal matches it doesn't matter whether players count their strokes or not.
 - This type of player may never be a good golfer nor win important matches. In important matches there are officials to check on players' scores and this practice would be uncovered.
 - Since there are no officials, players should be extra careful in scoring correctly and should call fouls against themselves.
 - This type of play is unfair and should not be tolerated.
21. A football coach tells his boys how, when he played in college, he was told to stiff-arm the opposing star in order to put him out of the game. He laughingly tells of his success in achieving this assignment.
- To injure an opponent deliberately is wrong. By laughingly telling his players what he had done, the coach is setting a bad example.
 - Putting opponents out of the game is clever. By telling them how he had achieved this, he showed his boys how they could do it.
 - Since the coach had been taught to do this, he must think such actions are part of football therefore he was justified in setting such an example.
 - Injuring players through legal means is good strategy. Any example in support of this belief should be used by the coach.
 - Since his actions helped win the game the coach is justifiably proud of his achievement.

22. A spectator at a basketball game sees that an opponent is about to shoot a free throw. He stamps, whistles, and tries to distract the player.
- If other spectators were trying to bother the player, you would also.
 - Unless the officials stop you, you would try to bother the player.
 - You would bother the player only if the score was close.
 - You would not try to bother the player.
 - If you were the only spectator trying to bother the player, you would stop.
23. The timekeeper's whistle indicated the end of a wrestling match. The wrestlers continued even though the whistle had blown. During this overtime one of the wrestlers scored two points. The timekeeper informed the official that the two points had been scored after the match had been ended. The coach of the team that had scored the two points, argued with the official. The official compromised, since he was not sure when the match ended, and the two points were scored in a legal maneuver. The official gave the scoring team one point and the match was tied.
- Since the two points were awarded the wrestler, the coach had a right to dispute with the official and gain a compromise.
 - The coach should not dispute with the official since his wrestler's points were scored in an illegal overtime.
 - The official had no right to compromise the situation. The two points scored were illegal and he should have accepted the timer's word.
 - Since two points were scored as a result of the confusion over the timer's signal, the official was right to offer a compromise.
 - The official should have allowed the two points to count since he was not sure they were not scored before the whistle.
24. At a particular field house where basketball games are played, the coach and substitutes for each team are seated underneath the basket, one team at one end of the floor and the other team at the other end. Team A and team B are playing when suddenly the play comes down under team A's basket. Team A's coach stands up, leans over the shoulder of the official who is standing under the basket and points to a foul which he thinks the official should call.
- Team A's coach was correct in pointing out the foul to the official, only if the official missed the foul.
 - Team A's coach should not have pointed out the foul because the official would probably call it anyhow.
 - Team A's coach was wrong. He should let the officials do their job without interference, reminder, or attempts to influence their decisions.
 - Team A's coach was doing his job as a good coach. His action serves as a reminder and keeps the officials alert.
 - The coach's actions are justified since it is customarily part of his job to show the officials what they should call and what they are missing.

25. A tennis player is getting ready to play in a tennis match. While he is getting out his racket, putting on his tennis shoes, and warming up, he complains about not feeling too well. He continues, commenting that he knows he cannot play his best today. His comments seem to the spectators that he is trying to establish an alibi in case he should lose. He is defeated and after the match points out that he just wasn't playing his best today.
- Alibing is a poor thing to do.
 - If he genuinely felt bad, he has a right to mention the fact before or after the game.
 - His remarks may be misunderstood by spectators as an alibi.
 - Since such actions seem to the spectators like alibing, the tennis player should not say such things.
 - If the tennis player really felt bad he should not play. If he feels well enough to play he should keep still.
26. Football players are not allowed to move beyond the line of scrimmage until the ball has been snapped. Some coaches coach their teams and players to attempt to charge across the line of scrimmage a fraction of a second before the ball is snapped. This gives them an advantage over the defense since they outcharge them. The officials have difficulty in seeing this and the team may get away with this more than they are caught.
- The coach and players are clever to be able to do this without being seen by the officials.
 - If the officials can't tell whether the team is wrong, players have the right to try.
 - Since the object of the game is to outcharge the opponents, any way they can do it is legal.
 - This is against the rules so the players and coach are wrong to try to get away with such actions.
 - The opponents can do the same thing if they wish, therefore, teams are justified to try.
7. During the last 30 seconds of a tied basketball game between two college teams, the players scrambled for a loose ball near team A's foul line. This resulted in a tie ball. After the official called the tie ball, team B requested time out and the official placed the ball on the foul line. After the time out, the official picked up the ball and awarded it to Team A for a free throw, forgetting it was a tie ball. Team A's captain told the official he was wrong and the official accepted his word.
- The official was correct in accepting team A's captain's word.
 - Team B should have corrected the official since they were being unfairly penalized.
 - The official should have continued with the free throw regardless of objections since he is in charge of the game.
 - Team A's captain should not have objected to the decision, he should have let team B's captain object.
 - Neither of the team's captains should attempt to change the official's decision. They should let the official discover his own mistakes.

28. A previously undefeated tennis player was finally beaten in a close match. After the match and whenever someone spoke to him he would say, "I really didn't play my best game."
- He had to say something when addressed. This was a good remark.
 - He was justified in making such a statement if he felt it to be true.
 - This was a clever remark. It should influence his opponent's opinion of him so that he might beat him later.
 - A good loser would never say such a thing.
 - Since this was the first time he had been beaten he was justified in making such a statement.
29. In field hockey a player is permitted to hit the ball with her stick as hard as she wishes, as long as she does not hit the ball directly into an opponent. Sometimes a player hits when an opponent is very close. She hits the ball away and not at the opponent but in swinging the stick causes the opponent to duck or dodge to keep from being hit. This action is not illegal as long as the stick is not raised above the shoulders. Some players will not swing at the ball when an opponent is close but others concentrate on hitting the ball and expect the opponent to get out of the way of the stick.
- Since there is no rule against this action, players are justified.
 - Players who swing at the ball when an opponent is standing close to the stick should be penalized.
 - If the players have not the nerve to play under such circumstances they should not participate.
 - Players should be coached to use and exercise caution in avoiding this type of play. It is better to lose the ball than to endanger an opponent.
 - The object of the game is to get the ball. The first player to reach the ball has the right to do what she wishes.
30. In league bowling one person will score approximately half the time, then a member of the opposite team scores the rest. This amounts to keeping score for about one and one half games. A bowler notices that the game being scored by the opponents is being scored incorrectly and in favor of the opponents.
- The bowler should call the matter to the attention of the opponents.
 - The bowler should ignore the situation.
 - The bowler should wait until his team is scoring and change the opponent's score.
 - After the bowler calls the mistakes to the attention of the other team he should ask for a new scorer.
 - If the error is pointed out and not corrected, the team should refuse to bowl.

31. Player A is playing Player B in a tennis match. Player A beats B in the first set, 6 games to 1. B continually stops to tie his shoes, wipe his face every few minutes, and moves slowly into position for each play. Player B discovers that these actions upset player A. He continues these maneuvers and beats player A in the second and third sets, winning the match.
- Player B is clever to use these tactics since they helped him win.
 - Player A should use the same tactics against player B.
 - Player B should not take unfair advantage of Player A.
 - Since player A could use the same tactics as player B, player B was right to use them.
 - Player A, if he were a good player, would not player B's tactics bother him.
2. A basketball rule states that a captain of a team is the only player who may talk to an official, request time-out, or ask for permission to leave the court. Some players and coaches feel that if they constantly complain of being fouled when no foul occurred eventually they will gain an advantage by directing the attention of the officials to the opponents. It is possible this might work with some officials.
- Complaining about actual fouls is all right but not nonexistent fouls.
 - This particular practice influences only a few officials, probably poor ones, therefore such action is all right.
 - This is a good thing to do because it may help to determine which officials are good and which are not.
 - This action is not in the spirit nor within the rules of the game and should not be practiced.
 - Since this action is a violation of the rules, the officials should stop this practice and enforce the rule.
3. A rider in a horse show is putting his horse through various maneuvers and "gaits" required in that particular event. For example, the rider rides the horse through walk, trot, and canter with the judge estimating the skill with which the rider controls the horse and puts the horse through his paces. Another rider, in the same event, tries to crowd, shove, and annoy the first rider whenever the judge is not looking. If the judge sees the second rider doing these things, he can disqualify him, but unfortunately he does not. The first rider does not know what to do. He should:
- Report the opposing rider's actions to the officials in charge of the show.
 - Ask the opposing rider to stop crowding and tell him that if he does not stop he will report him to the officials.
 - Ask the other rider to stop and threaten to crowd him if he does not stop.
 - Wait until the show is over and then report the opponent's actions to the show officials after telling the opponent he is going to do this.
 - Simply ignore the opposing rider and pretend that nothing is happening.

34. A field hockey team is being badly beaten by their opponents. They finally get into position to score and as one player drives the ball toward the goal, her teammate inadvertently lets the ball bounce off her foot into the goal. The umpire does not see the kicking foul and indicates the goal is good.
- The player who kicked the ball should tell the official what she did.
 - The teammates of the player who kicked the ball should tell the umpire.
 - The team which is ahead should inform the official that the goal was illegal.
 - Since the team scoring the goal was behind it is to their advantage to confess the foul so that the opponents will think more of them even though they are not playing too well.
 - The official's decision should stand.
35. In a baseball game a base-runner was forced to run from first to second base when the batter hit the ball toward second. The base-runner was easily put out but he deliberately crashed into the second baseman who was trying to throw to first base, and who was not in the runner's way. It is common practice for runners to try to prevent basemen from throwing -- by running into them. Although this is against the rules it is difficult for umpires to tell whether the runners are deliberately or accidentally knocking the baseman down.
- Customary or not, the base-runner should have avoided the second baseman.
 - The base-runner runs the risk of being called out by the umpire if he can get away with it, he might as well try.
 - The base-runner was doing what is common by running into the baseman in order to prevent another out.
 - The base-runner should get in the way of the second baseman rather than knock him down.
 - Basemen expect this type of action from base-runners, so it was a risk; he should expect such things to happen, and try to avoid the runner.
36. In a World Series baseball game one of the pitchers had a no-hit, no-run game up to the last batter. In the last half of the last inning, the batter at bat had a count of 3 balls and 2 strikes. As the pitcher delivered the ball, the umpire called "Strike three, you are out." The batter objected violently but the game was over and the pitcher had won his no-hit, no-run game. Later the batter told newspaper reporters that the third strike was wild and the umpire probably had called it a strike just to give the pitcher the glory of winning a no-hit World Series game. It was also known that the umpire in question was retiring and this was his last game.
- Since winning a no-hit game in the World Series is almost unheard of, the umpire was justified in calling that last pitch a strike regardless of where the ball was. The batter's team would have lost anyway.
 - Big league umpires are very good and they very seldom make mistakes. The batter was wrong and the umpire right.
 - The batter should not have protested the umpire's decision in the first place, much less go on to announce later that the call was wrong.
 - It was all right for the batter to object to the third strike during the game but he should not have said anything later.
 - It is possible the umpire was wrong but since he was retiring and the pitcher had done so well, he was justified in calling any kind of pitch, "strike three."

37. A field hockey player hit her opponent on the shins just as she was about to receive a pass from a teammate. The player who hit the opponent's shins intercepted the pass and went on to score. It is against the rules to hit a player with your stick but the official did not see the foul.
- If the official did not see the foul the player need not confess she fouled.
 - The player should not have broken a rule. She should have indicated she fouled.
 - The opponent should wait for a chance to pay the player back and hit her on the shins.
 - Not all officials see all the fouls which may occur. Nothing need be done. If the player should foul again she will probably be caught.
 - If the teammates of this player realized she fouled they should tell the officials.
38. The groundskeepers have sprinkled lime on home-plate to mark it more clearly. A runner slides into home-plate. The catcher, by sitting on homeplate, blocks the runner. The umpire calls the runner safe, but the catcher stands up and shows the umpire the imprint of home-plate on the seat of his pants. The catcher maintains the runner was out since he could not possibly touch home-plate while he was sitting on home-plate. Blocking bases frequently occurs and is commonly accepted as good play although it is against the rules.
- The catcher should object strenuously since he has unquestionable evidence that the runner could not have touched home-plate.
 - If the umpire does not change his decision, the catcher should appeal to the other umpire or officials.
 - You should accept the umpire's decision since he is the authority in the game.
 - You should accept the decision but argue anyhow to let the umpire know how you feel.
 - Blocking home-plate takes unfair advantage of his opponent. If he earned a run he should get it. The official's decision should stand.
39. A fencer consistently makes comments, shouts, or stamps his feet as he attacks his opponent. This seems to upset his opponent, but the first fencer is not breaking the rules of the sport.
- This is perfectly all right if the fencer is not breaking any rules.
 - If this is the only way this fencer can win, he is not really a good fencer, and should not do such a thing.
 - The coach or officials should advise the fencer to stop this action.
 - The opponent should tell the other fencer what he thinks of such action.
 - Shouting, stamping etc., are not in the "spirit" of fencing. Fencers should not do these things.
40. A baseball player trapped a fly ball between the ground and his glove in what appeared to be a spectacular catch. Such action is called "Trapping" and is against the rules. The player wasn't sure the umpire saw him.
- The player should have immediately confessed that he illegally trapped the ball.
 - The player should wait for the umpire's decision and abide by it.
 - If the umpire ruled his catch illegal, he should disagree on the grounds that he felt that the umpire could not see the play.
 - If the umpire asks him if he trapped the ball he should say he did.
 - If the umpire asks him, he should say he did not trap the ball.

APPENDIX D

STUDENT SOCIETAL INVENTORY
"LIFE PROBLEMS"*

Name: _____ School: _____

Directions:

This is not a test. There are no right and wrong answers to the problems which you will find described in this booklet. Each person should decide what is best to do in each situation. He should mark only those reasons which express his own feelings.

Please read the problems carefully enough to be sure you understand them.

Problem I

Bill was one of the key players on the football team which was scheduled for an important game. In order to play he had to pass examinations in all his courses. Because of extra football practice, he did not know the answers to several questions on the monthly English test, though usually he was a good student. He asked Glen who sat next to him to give him some of the answers. The teacher suspected Bill had gotten help and asked Glen about it. Glen knew that the teacher would not forgive Bill and that Bill could not play if it were known that he had gotten help on the English test.

What should Glen do? (Check which statement you think is best.)

- ☐ A. Tell her the truth.
- ☐ B. Say he knew nothing about it.
- ☐ C. Suggest that the teacher had better ask Bill.

Why? (Check in the spaces below the reasons that express why you believe the action which you have checked is best.)

REASONS

- ☐ 1. Everybody at one time or another does something dishonest and is forced to tell a white lie.
- ☐ 2. Not even the most honest person likes a tattler.
- ☐ 3. Having cheated, Bill is not a good sportsman anyway and not worth protecting.
- ☐ 4. Some things are so important that it would be foolish not to lie a little to gain them.

*Adopted from Taba and Havighurst as used in their Prairie City Study.

- ☐ 5. One should never talk against a friend.
- ☐ 6. Dishonesty in this case would be worse than the risk of losing the game.
- ☐ 7. Glen was a partner to cheating and should be man enough to stick it out.
- ☐ 8. The best policy is to avoid trouble with the teacher as well as with Bill.
- ☐ 9. Honesty is the best policy in all cases.
- ☐ 10. One should not go back on a friend who trusted you when he needs help.
- ☐ 11. One should avoid lying as well as being a stool pigeon.
- ☐ 12. Telling the truth is the best policy even at the expense of losing the game.
- ☐ 13. Under the circumstances it is Glen's duty to protect Bill.
- ☐ 14. Not telling the truth would put both Glen and Bill in bad with the teacher.
- ☐ 15. The person who did the cheating should be the one to tell the teacher.

Problem II

Earl is carrying a heavy study schedule and takes part in many interests and activities. He also works on Saturdays for spending money. Well toward the middle of the year, the photography editor of the yearbook is found to be unable to manage the job, and Earl is asked to take his job as he is best qualified. Earl knows that if he accepts this job he will either have to drop his hobbies, drop a subject, or run the risk of getting poorer grades.

What should Earl do? (Check which statement you think is best.)

- ☐ A. Under the circumstances he is justified in refusing the job.
- ☐ B. He should accept the job.

Why? (Check in the spaces below the reasons that express why you believe the action which you have checked is best.)

REASONS

- ☐ 1. Students in a school have the responsibility of helping with school affairs.
- ☐ 2. No job on the yearbook is more important than grades and subjects.
- ☐ 3. One does most for the school by keeping up one's work and interests.
- ☐ 4. Personal inconveniences, such as having no time for hobbies, are less important than the success of the yearbook.
- ☐ 5. Hobbies and interests help him during his whole life, while his work on the yearbook will only make the yearbook better for one year.

- 6. It means a lot to the school to have a good yearbook.
- 7. A student should not be expected to work on school affairs unless he can conveniently spare the time.
- 8. Since he was the second choice, Earl should not give up anything that is important to him for this job on the yearbook.
- 9. Good citizens of a school should be willing to do the hard jobs for the school.
- 10. A student's first duty is to do the things he either likes or which help him in his life career.
- 11. The experience as editor may be helpful for him in later life.
- 12. High school students go to school to educate themselves and not to help out the school.
- 13. Editing a yearbook will give Earl a chance to become more popular.

Problem III

A committee was appointed to take care of the scrap collection in the school. Bob was a member of the committee. His task was that of weighing the scrap. The chairman who was popular was careless in his work. Bob found it difficult to do his share well without also doing some of the work the chairman was supposed to do. He spoke about it to the chairman, but the chairman did nothing about it. Many other students defended the chairman because he was so well liked.

What should Bob do? (Check which statement you think is the best.)

- A. Do the things that the chairman was supposed to do, and say nothing about it.
- B. Propose that someone else be appointed as chairman.
- C. Do his own job well enough to get by and not worry about the rest.
- D. Resign from his job quietly.

Why? (Check in the spaces below the reasons that express why you believe the action which you have checked is best.)

REASONS

- 1. This job is important enough for Bob to reveal the inefficiency of the chairman, even if that makes Bob unpopular.
- 2. Bob's duty is to act as a committee member; he will not be thanked for butting into the affairs which are not his business.
- 3. People who complain about how things are run are not well liked.
- 4. If Bob resigns, the scrap activities are likely to be organized better.
- 5. Under the circumstances there is nothing Bob can do about poor leadership except to get out.

- ☐ 6. Bob has done his duty by doing his own part as well as he can.
- ☐ 7. Responsible people do the work that needs to be done, even if it includes things other people should be doing.
- ☐ 8. Bob would save himself trouble with the chairman and other students by doing his part and not trying to oust the chairman or to take over the chairman's duties.
- ☐ 9. As a member of the committee, Bob should avoid causing hard feelings on the part of the chairman.
- ☐ 10. Important work should be done right, and it is the duty of Bob to see to it that it is done under efficient leadership.
- ☐ 11. It's all for a good cause, and so it really doesn't matter who does the work or who gets the credit for it.
- ☐ 12. Why work hard on something for which another gets the credit?
- ☐ 13. There is no sense in a person doing all the work to cover up another person's inadequacy.
- ☐ 14. If Bob criticizes the chairman, it will look as if he wants to be appointed chairman.
- ☐ 15. Poor work by the committee would not be Bob's fault, but it would still reflect on Bob if the committee made a poor showing.
- ☐ 16. By resigning, Bob will avoid being party to a failure.
- ☐ 17. A careless and inefficient chairman does not deserve the honor or privilege of his position.
- ☐ 18. Bob's resigning would make the chairman face his responsibility.

Problem IV

Carl and Jim were friends and kept their books and coats in the same locker. Both boys were interested in reading a great deal and took out books from the school library. Carl had a job helping to check books out in the library. One day a new and interesting book for which there was a long waiting list disappeared. The librarian asked Carl to find out where the book was. Carl asked Jim about it, but Jim said he knew nothing about the book. Three days later Carl was cleaning out the locker and saw the book among Jim's things.

What should Carl do? (Check which statement you think is best.)

- ☐ A. Take up the problem with both Jim and the librarian.
- ☐ B. Give Jim a chance to return the book unnoticed.
- ☐ C. Let the matter pass.

Why? (Check in the spaces below the reasons that express why you believe the action which you have checked is best.)

REASONS

- ☐ 1. Both boys would have a clear conscience by clearing the matter with the librarian.
- ☐ 2. By keeping quiet about having found the book, Carl would avoid telling a lie as well as embarrassing a friend.
- ☐ 3. Carl's duty as a helper in the library is to see to it that irregularities about borrowing books are reported.
- ☐ 4. One should not tell on a friend, even if it involves untruth.
- ☐ 5. One does not break up a friendship because of a book.
- ☐ 6. Taking books out of the library is a small matter, and Jim could be saved the embarrassment of returning the book to the librarian.
- ☐ 7. Carl should not run the risk of impairing his friendship with Jim.
- ☐ 8. It is not Carl's duty to report things he has found out accidentally outside the library.
- ☐ 9. In this case, honesty is a better policy than protecting a friend.
- ☐ 10. Jim's friendship with Carl obligates Carl to help Jim.
- ☐ 11. If Jim disobeyed the rules, he should face the consequences for doing it.
- ☐ 12. It is no affair of Carl's if Jim wishes to break library rules.
- ☐ 13. "Borrowing" books in the way Jim did is being unfair to other students and should not be overlooked.

Problem V

A high school was planning an entertainment to earn some money for their athletic equipment. The dramatic club which was in charge assigned all students something to do. Some had parts in the skit; some arranged stage lighting; others sold tickets. All the members of the club could stay inside during the entertainment. One boy who was not a member of the dramatic club was asked to stand outside and keep youngsters from climbing up on the window ledges.

What should this boy do? (Check which statement you think is best.)

- ☐ A. This boy should accept this task without questioning.
- ☐ B. He should refuse to do it.
- ☐ C. He should agree to watch only part of the time.

Why? (Check in the spaces below the reasons that express why you believe the action you have checked is best.)

REASONS

- ☐ 1. He would probably be liked much better for doing his job.
- ☐ 2. He should not be expected to play stooge while others were having fun.

- ☐ 3. Since he probably was going to use the athletic equipment, he could put in a little time watching.
- ☐ 4. Since the entertainment was in the hands of the club, its members should be responsible for the worst job.
- ☐ 5. No one else would like this responsibility any better than he did.
- ☐ 6. Those who get the credit should take the responsibility for the unpleasant jobs.
- ☐ 7. By asking him, other people showed they had confidence in him and he should be proud.
- ☐ 8. The dramatic club had no right to ask him in the first place.
- ☐ 9. To refuse altogether would show him up as a person who cares nothing for the school.
- ☐ 10. In life there are always unpleasant things to be done, and one should train oneself for them.
- ☐ 11. By working part of the time this boy has done all that can be expected of him.
- ☐ 12. Everyone should contribute all they can to making the show a success.
- ☐ 13. He should have an equal chance with others to watch the fun.
- ☐ 14. It is only fair that other students share in this responsibility.
- ☐ 15. The entertainment is for the benefit of the school, even though it was managed by the club.

Problem VI

Bob admires Paul very much and wants to belong to the group that is often invited to Paul's house. Once, while Bob is visiting Paul with some other boys, Paul makes some quite damaging remarks about Bill. Bob knows Bill only slightly, but he is sure the things Paul says are not true. He also knows that Paul gets angry easily when crossed and that Paul is not likely to invite him again if he offends him.

What should Bob do? (Check which statement you think is best.)

- ☐ A. Keep quiet and ignore the remarks.
- ☐ B. Defend Bill.

Why? (Check in the spaces below the reasons that express why you believe the action which you have checked is best.)

REASONS

- ☐ 1. Such gossip and critical remarks are not serious enough to make a fuss over them.
- ☐ 2. When someone's reputation is at stake, it is cowardly not to stand up for the truth.
- ☐ 3. Bob would be foolish to risk Paul's friendship and that of his group by defending a mere acquaintance.

- ☐ 4. Bob's conscience would bother him if he failed to defend Bill.
- ☐ 5. There is not much point in defending a person who does not matter to you.
- ☐ 6. If Bob wants friends, the best way to get them is to show that he is loyal and courageous in defending others.
- ☐ 7. One should avoid being impolite to a friend whose house one is visiting.
- ☐ 8. If Paul is offended by the truth, he is no friend worth having.
- ☐ 9. In such a case a wise person will avoid the issue and will neither agree with Paul nor defend Bill.
- ☐ 10. It is wrong to keep quiet when a person who cannot defend himself is being talked about.
- ☐ 11. Bob would be as bad as Paul if he listened to untruths about Bill and did not try to defend him.

Problem VII

Mike, a junior in high school, has been invited to a party at Jim's home. Mike's best friends have also been invited and are all planning to attend. However, Mike's mother very much disapproves of Jim's family. Mike knows that his mother has such a strong feeling on this subject that if she knows that the party is at Jim's home he will be forbidden to attend. Mike himself wants very much to go to the party and is sure that he will have a good time. What should he do?

If you were this student, what do you think would be the best thing to do? (Check which statement you think is best.)

- ☐ A. He should tell his mother about the party.
- ☐ B. He should go to the party and tell his mother about it after it is over.
- ☐ C. He should go to the party and say it is somewhere else.

Why? (Check in the spaces below the reasons that express why you believe the action which you have checked is best.)

REASONS

- ☐ 1. One should not deceive one's mother, even though one may suffer thereby.
- ☐ 2. What parents do not know does not hurt them.
- ☐ 3. To keep a family happy and to avoid arguments, it is best to tell only that part of what you do which will not upset them.
- ☐ 4. It is all right for the young people to do what their parents disapprove as long as they tell afterwards.
- ☐ 5. Being honest with parents and having them trust you is more important than an evening of fun.
- ☐ 6. As long as nothing wrong is done, it is better to tell an occasional untruth than to aggravate parents.

- ☐ 7. Truth is always the best thing.
- ☐ 8. By telling about the party later, Mike will not have lied.
- ☐ 9. One cannot be completely honest with parents when they have foolish ideas.
- ☐ 10. For young people it is more important to keep their friends than to tell their parents everything they do.
- ☐ 11. If Mike wants to go, it would be better for him to disobey his mother than to tell her a lie.
- ☐ 12. Keeping friends is so important that it would be foolish not to tell a little fib to accomplish that.
- ☐ 13. In life we have to sacrifice fun for the sake of honesty.
- ☐ 14. It is better to keep quiet than to tell an outright lie.

Problem VIII

George had started a group in school, which had been trying to do something about keeping order in the halls and believed in what they were doing. Against George's advice some of the members used bossy methods and got into a scrap with some of the students. The result was that this group became unpopular and became known as a police squad. Members of this group were shunned by others, and several of George's friends made fun of him.

What should George do? (Check the statement you think is best.)

- ☐ A. Stop working with the project.
- ☐ B. Stay with the group and keep on working on the project.
- ☐ C. Try to help the project along, but drop out of the group.

Why? (Check in the spaces below the reasons that express why you believe the action which you have checked is best.)

REASONS

- ☐ 1. One's reputation with friends is worth more than sticking with an unsuccessful group project.
- ☐ 2. It is not right to desert a group one has been working with, in time of trouble.
- ☐ 3. If George gives up the project he will be regarded as a quitter.
- ☐ 4. It is foolish to be influenced by the razzing of friends if one knows one is right.
- ☐ 5. George has a perfect right to stop working with the group because they did not follow his advice.
- ☐ 6. By dropping out without deserting the project, George might awaken the members of this group to their mistakes.
- ☐ 7. It is not wise to be associated with a group that has a bad name.

- 8. George could win a reputation for himself by influencing the group and making the project successful.
- 9. By working without belonging to the group, George can help the project without hurting himself.
- 10. One should always stick out the difficulties when working for a worthwhile cause.
- 11. A group that does not know how to get along with others does not deserve support.
- 12. As long as there is difficulty in getting cooperation from other students, it is no use carrying on.
- 13. It is important to protect one's reputation by not belonging to an unpopular group.

Please list three faculty members who you feel know you the best.

APPENDIX E

TEACHER RATING INVENTORY ON STUDENT SPORTSMANSHIP VALUES*

DIRECTIONS: The following questions cover some of the current practices in athletics. Mark the following items to the best of your ability in the way in which you think _____ would either behave or believe in each situational statement. Your answers should be based upon your observations of the student's behavior in day-to-day activity.

1. There is a rule in football that states, "The official shall grant a time-out and stop the clock for the removal of an injured player." During a college football game the clock was stopped twice, once a few seconds before the first half ended, and a few seconds before the game ended, by players "faking" injuries. This allowed that team enough time for one more play each half, and they scored two touchdowns and tied the game. Do you feel that _____ would believe this is right?

Yes _____ No _____
2. Another rule in football states, "No player shall be in or beyond the neutral zone (line of scrimmage) until the ball is snapped." There are some teams that are coached so that all the linemen on a team charge 1/2 a count before the ball is snapped and thereby aid them in "out charging" the defensive line. They are operating on a percentage plan that the officials who have difficulty calling "off sides" on such plays will allow the play. Do you feel that _____ would believe this is right?

Yes _____ No _____
3. During a close college basketball game a guard on team "A" was outnumbered on a fast break by three men on team "B" who were in possession of the ball. Realizing that his chances of stopping them from scoring a field goal were very poor, he went out and met them and fouled one of the men before they could shoot and thereby prevented the field goal. Do you feel that _____ would approve of this action?

Yes _____ No _____

*Adapted from the questionnaire used by Joy Kistler in his study entitled "What Do We Know About the Attitudes Which People Hold Regarding Behavior in Specific Situations Occurring in Sports."

4. A rule in basketball states: "The Captain is the representative of his team and may address an Official on matters of interpretation or to obtain essential information, if it is done in a courteous manner. Any player may address an Official to request a time-out or permission to leave the court." This sets the limits of conversing with an official.

Some coaches and players feel that by constantly complaining of having been fouled when no foul occurred they gain an advantage by having the Officials direct their attention to the opponents. This practice is contrary to the spirit of the rule, but may gain an advantage for those who practice it with some officials. Do you feel that _____ would approve of such practice?

Yes _____ No _____

5. Do you feel that _____ would consider it an example of poor sportsmanship for spectators to "boo" a visiting player who is shooting for a foul shot?

Yes _____ No _____

6. A rule in baseball states: "Any runner is out when he is touched by the ball (when it is not "dead") securely held in the hand of a fielder. The ball is not securely held if it is dropped or juggled after the runner is touched, unless the runner deliberately knocks the ball from the fielder's hand."

In a World Series game in 1951, Eddie Stankey intentionally kicked the ball out of Rizzuto's glove while sliding into second and was safe. Do you feel that _____

would approve of Stankey's action?

Yes _____ No _____

7. Many times in baseball and basketball the spectators and players will attempt to put pressure on the officials by yelling, talking, and booing. This is a way of letting the officials know "We expect more than our share of the close ones." Do you feel that _____

would believe this to be proper?

Yes _____ No _____

8. During an intercollegiate tennis match Jack beat Bill (6-1) in the first set. Bill realized that by using delaying tactics such as frequently tying his shoes, wiping the perspiration from his face every few minutes, and by moving very slowly into position to receive the next serve, he could irritate Jack and throw him off his game. Using these tactics, which does not violate the letter of the rules, Bill beat Jack (6-4, 6-4) and won the match. Do you feel that _____ would approve of Bill's method of winning?

Yes _____ No _____

9. During a close intercollegiate tennis match, John was playing Roger. Roger made a nice return of John's serve which John was unable to play. The ball was near the back court line but good by six inches. The referee called it "out" and gave the point to John. John knew the ball had been good so he intentionally hit his next two serves into the net to even up things. Do you feel that _____ would approve of John's action?
Yes _____ No _____
10. During a track meet "Podunk" has a really good 1/2-miler named Smith. Smith always likes to set the pace, and only by doing this can he run a good race. John and Bill are team-mates from another school and are to run against Smith. As the race begins John and Bill sprint to the turn and John takes the lead and the inside lane while Bill moves into the second lane about 1/2 a stride behind John. They "box" Smith who is directly behind John and the only way he can get in front is to slow his pace and move out to the third lane. Each time he starts to pass, John and Bill speed up and as they are running the shortest distance they are able to prevent Smith from passing. By using this method they are able to beat Smith who was unable to get out of the "box." Do you feel that _____ would approve of this action to win a race?
Yes _____ No _____
11. A football coach tells his team how to stiff-arm the opposing star in order to put him out of the game. Do you feel that _____ would approve of this type of strategy?
Yes _____ No _____
12. On a close play at home plate the umpire calls the runner safe; the catcher, believing that the runner was out, protests vigorously. Do you feel that _____ would approve of the catcher protesting the umpire's decision?
Yes _____ No _____

APPENDIX F

TEACHER RATING INVENTORY ON STUDENT SOCIETAL VALUES*

DIRECTIONS: There are no right or wrong answers to the following statements. Mark the following items to the best of your ability in the way in which you think would either behave or believe in each situational statement. Your answers should be based upon your observations of the student's behavior in day-to-day activity.

If you believe that the student's behavior or beliefs reflect agreement with the statement, circle the letter A opposite the statement.

If you are uncertain as to what the student's behavior or beliefs would reflect, circle the letter U opposite the statement.

If you believe that the student's behavior or beliefs reflect disagreement with the statement, circle the letter D opposite the statement.

There should be only one mark for each statement. Answer every statement.

- A U D 1. You should not say unkind things to another person, even if he greatly irritates you.
- A U D 2. You cannot be expected to always consider whether what you say or do will hurt the feelings of others.
- A U D 3. Young people can be forgiven for doing some things they know are wrong if other people are doing them, too.
- A U D 4. When things need to be done, it is priggish of persons in a group to keep on raising questions about the rightness or the wrongness of proposed acts.
- A U D 5. "Honesty is the best policy" may be a good motto, but in real life one cannot be successful by being completely honest.
- A U D 6. No one is an honest person unless his statements can always be relied upon.
- A U D 7. You should support all the actions of a chosen leader, even if you sometimes disagree with his ideas or ways of doing things.
- A U D 8. Students should not be expected to turn out to their school games when they are very tired or busy or when they have something else important to do.

*"Student Beliefs" inventory as used by Taba and Havighurst in their Prairie City Study.

- A U D 9. When assigned a somewhat difficult task at school or by your employer, you should be expected to work it out yourself without the aid of adults.
- A U D 10. When a school has rules they should be obeyed, regardless of how stupid or unnecessary you believe them to be.
- A U D 11. It is all right to be late to a meeting if you know that other people are going to be late also.
- A U D 12. Some persons are naturally carefree and forgetful, and so they must be excused when they fail to complete assigned duties.
- A U D 13. Students who do not attend the school games, plays, and parties are poor citizens.
- A U D 14. When you accept a job you should complete it, regardless of what happens to make it difficult to do so.
- A U D 15. A person should not feel obliged to be friendly or attentive to persons who have few friends, because they do not know how to get along with people.
- A U D 16. People who are busy cannot be expected to go out of their way to be friendly to others who do not matter to them.
- A U D 17. Even though you may be called "preachy" for doing it, you should not hesitate to tell others when certain of their acts are wrong.
- A U D 18. It is not really wrong to exaggerate stories of what you have done.
- A U D 19. People who have put off completing their school work should not be given extra time by their teachers to get their work in.
- A U D 20. A person who has stolen only a few times is not really a dishonest person.
- A U D 21. When an adult tells you to do something which is more difficult than you thought it would be it is best to let him take over the task.
- A U D 22. If you find an article of little value it is foolish to spend time searching for the owner.
- A U D 23. When it is "quitting time" you should feel free to leave your job, even if the task on which you are working is not quite finished.
- A U D 24. Regardless of what happens to you as a result of it, you should challenge untrue accounts about another person when you hear them.
- A U D 25. It is usually wise not to uphold the minority.
- A U D 26. Students who are not interested in school parties or dances should not be expected to attend.
- A U D 27. People will regard you as a more sincere person if you are not trying to be friendly with all kinds of people.
- A U D 28. It is foolish for a busy person to take time to cheer up someone who is unhappy because of his own fault.

- A U D 29. Borrowing things without permission and then forgetting to return them to the owner is no better than stealing.
- A U D 30. Some matters in life are so important that it would be foolish not to cheat a little to gain them.
- A U D 31. Students should not insist that a teacher explain to them why they were given a low grade even though they believe the low grade to be undeserved.
- A U D 32. A person who tries to win many friends cannot be a very true friend.
- A U D 33. You should not tell your friends about things which go wrong in your club or on your committee.
- A U D 34. When you have not the time to keep up your lessons and your friendships, it is better to neglect your lessons than your friends.
- A U D 35. You should not risk being regarded as a bore or pest by urging others to support a club or organization to which you belong.
- A U D 36. When the school is run in such a way that student rights are disregarded, or an injustice is done to certain students, you should protest against such practices, even though you may suffer from doing so.
- A U D 37. It is all right to copy an answer from a neighbor's paper if you know the answer but cannot remember it at the moment.
- A U D 38. You should report people who make a habit of taking other students' property.
- A U D 39. In case of important decisions one should not choose ways which are easier, pleasanter, or will get him farther if these ways are not also morally right.
- A U D 40. Some matters in life are so important that it would be foolish not to lie a little in order to gain them.
- A U D 41. You are justified in refusing to go to Sunday school if only a few persons of your age attend.
- A U D 42. A club should not expect you to do tasks which you are not willing to do.
- A U D 43. A busy person has the right to refuse to do a job which will benefit a club to which he belongs but which will not benefit himself.
- A U D 44. Students who know the required subject matter should be given high grades even if they haven't completed all the required work, such as reports, notebooks, etc.
- A U D 45. A student need not feel that he should straighten up a disorderly room at school if he was not responsible for the disorder.
- A U D 46. When you see another student misusing school materials you should not interfere in what is his own affair by trying to stop him.

- A U D 47. You should stop going around with friends whose beliefs of right and wrong and whose standards of behavior differ greatly from yours.
- A U D 48. You need not feel obliged to keep a promise if you had to make it hurriedly or thoughtlessly.
- A U D 49. You need not feel under any obligation to do things at school which have not been especially assigned to you by a teacher or a student officer.
- A U D 50. Students who are not willing to do the minor and somewhat boring tasks to help the school and teachers are not really good citizens of the school.
- A U D 51. Stars in athletics and other school activities should not be expected to be punctual about other school work.
- A U D 52. Friendliness is all right with persons whom you like, but many people are too boring to bother to be friendly with them.
- A U D 53. It is all right to use without permission small sums of money (fifteen or twenty cents) belonging to your family.
- A U D 54. You should drop a friendship if your reputation is endangered because of it, even though that friend has been a loyal one.
- A U D 55. You should never have anyone telephone your employer saying you are ill when you cannot come to work for another reason.
- A U D 56. You should not hesitate to express your beliefs before friends who may not agree with your convictions.
- A U D 57. There is nothing wrong in telling your parents that you were in on time when you really came in about an hour late.
- A U D 58. It is all right to listen to dirty stories, even if you believe that it is not right to tell them.
- A U D 59. It is wrong to try to avoid a subject where you know your honest opinion differs from that of others and discussion on this subject would cause you to express a contrary opinion.
- A U D 60. A really fine person should avoid an unpopular political or social group.
- A U D 61. When traveling you should take time to write to your friends, even if the time it takes causes you to miss visiting some points of interest.
- A U D 62. When conversing with a friend you should remember to say pleasant and complimentary things to him.
- A U D 63. At a party you should try to make strangers feel at home, even though that causes you to have to neglect some of your friends.
- A U D 64. It is best to let others tell you when they want to do things with you and not suggest them yourself, since they may prefer being alone.

- A U D 65. You should not invite newcomers in your school to a party at your home unless you are sure your crowd will want them.
- A U D 66. Members of a committee should expect club members not assigned to that committee to help them, if additional help is needed.
- A U D 67. One should not stick with an organization, no matter how worthwhile, whose members often do not come to meetings and where, in general, there seems to be little enthusiasm for the organization.
- A U D 68. If your home room or class decides to do something which they know you do not care to support, you have the right to refuse to help them.
- A U D 69. One should never criticize or talk about a friend to other people.
- A U D 70. If you see things which should be done at home or around your place of work, it would be foolish to do them unless you were asked to do so.
- A U D 71. Students who give much of their time to the school's activities should still be expected to work hard at their studies and not expect special allowances from their teachers.
- A U D 72. You need not feel obliged to be faithful to a friend who has done something bad to you.
- A U D 73. Talented people should not be expected to do the simple and uninteresting jobs of the school or of an organization.
- A U D 74. It is unforgivable to refuse to help a friend in difficulty, regardless of how much trouble it causes you to render such aid.
- A U D 75. One should work hard for the school when needed, even if this means giving up an after-school job which is not a necessity but which would help ease the family financial affairs.
- A U D 76. It would not be fair to speak against a candidate who very much wants the office, even though he would not make a good officer.
- A U D 77. Your family should not expect you to give them any money which you earn.
- A U D 78. A good father is one who places emphasis on the financial support of his family rather than on the character development of the children.
- A U D 79. Everyone should belong to several friendship groups, "gangs," or clubs.
- A U D 80. High-school-age people cannot be expected to show much interest in the affairs of their parents or other adult members of their family.
- A U D 81. Although everyone should stand by the right when forced to express an opinion, the best thing to do is to keep out of situations which call for the expression of an opinion.

- A U D 82. You should defend the rights of all people, even people whom you dislike.
- A U D 83. It is wrong to take candy, cookies, or other food at home if you are sure that your mother would not approve of your taking it.
- A U D 84. If an employer asks you to do a job you think is wrong, you should refuse to do it, regardless of how good a job it is.
- A U D 85. If you had to skip some of the things your employer asked you to do, it is all right for you to pretend that you did them.
- A U D 86. You should defend your family against criticism, even if you know that such a criticism is true.
- A U D 87. To keep a family happy and to avoid arguments, it is best to tell your family only that part of what you do which will not upset them.
- A U D 88. Since the running of a business is not the responsibility of an employee, you need not be concerned with the shady business practices of your employer.
- A U D 89. When at home you should put yourself out to be friendly with members of your family, even those who are not always too friendly with you.
- A U D 90. When it interferes with your job, you should not talk in a friendly way with the customers on whom you are waiting.
- A U D 91. It is all right to tell slightly exaggerated stories about your family if that is necessary to make them appear in a better light.
- A U D 92. You should not tell even a close friend about family quarrels or difficulties.
- A U D 93. You should tell a referee that the other side should be given the basketball if you were the one who knocked it out of bounds, when the referee did not know who last touched it.
- A U D 94. You should be willing to drop out of school to help earn money for your family if your support is needed.
- A U D 95. If someone has "fallen down" on a responsibility, he should not again be entrusted with a responsible job.
- A U D 96. Boys or girls should not be expected to help around the home if they are busy and if a maid or another adult is there to help.
- A U D 97. When the father is finding it difficult to get along on his wages, a high-school student should voluntarily help provide for the family, even if he is prominent in school and must give up school activities to do this.

APPENDIX G

GROUP SCORES IN PERCENTAGE TERMS

SPORTSMANSHIP INVENTORY

Athletic Participants				Spectators				Nonspectators				
Upper-Middle	31	23	60	43	48	48		28	30			
	53	23	68	45	53	65		55	61			
	85	61	59	65	38	63		67				
	30	23	48	65	48	50		68				
	58	46	81	33	70	53		60				
	44	63	28	28	63	78		58				
	68	38	55	43	48	71		33				
	30	75	53	80	58	55		60				
	60	38	26	53	43	33		60				
	60	45	30	73	58	23		60				
	38	25	61	55	30	58		33				
	68	50	38	34	30			42				
	83	40	55		28			48				
Lower-Middle	40	37	53	33	35	28	33	40	40	84	73	
	42	58	68	65	43	55	38		43	47	58	
	50	35	45	44	49	58	35		45	82	51	
	69	32	57	58	45	48	30		75	43	65	
	40	43	70	35	35	25	35		60	58	33	
	40	48	10	25	83	40	40		55	50		
	35	45	43		35	48	43		20	43		
	63	35	40		70	43	39		50	60		
	60	78	38		17	23	39		38	56		
	30	45	30		33	43	38		43	60		
	18	35	28		33	45	18		25	65		
	50	38	33		25	48	50		48	30		
	45	38	33		45	40	43		70	38		
Upper-Lower	33	44	33		35	36	30		53	50	48	30
	38	40	35		48	53	38		60	64	70	33
	30	25	40		38	24	18		28	28	63	36
	75	38	18		43	33	48		43	35	78	20
	43	55			48	53	28		55	46	63	63
	35	35			60	48	65		73	33	55	50
	45	50			50	23			58	50	38	
	65	30			30	68			61	38	73	
	40	40			88	58			68	5	60	
	34	18			45	55			40	35	50	
	38	53			38	83			54	20	43	

APPENDIX H

GROUP SCORES IN PERCENTAGE TERMS

SOCIETAL VALUE INVENTORY

Athletic Participants					Spectators				Nonspectators			
Upper-Middle	73	58	61	58		46	55		50	51		
	60	44	58	36		51	59		89			
	67	55	48	53		60	74		50			
	35	65	40	68		70	72		44			
	58	65	36	76		69	70		39			
	56	42	66	85		76	56		51			
	71	52	53	57		72	50		67			
	75	48	72	41		41	40		45			
	54	52	34	77		44	90		77			
	63	45	57	67		46	62		66			
	53	60	57			48	31		74			
	67	63	43			42	49		31			
	63	48	49			49	63		34			
Lower-Middle	28	23	59	50	52	38	54	50	63	42	70	42
	64	35	63	63	52	56	20	79	42	54	46	46
	53	30	60	51		56	44	64	38	27	51	75
	49	50	83	31		61	50	48	47	41	59	58
	47	42	79	64		29	60	50	35	62	34	58
	63	28	70	52		72	59	46	45	71	39	38
	31	26	60	49		38	75	46		58	57	58
	40	60	50	54		88	34	49		47	69	45
	59	65	44	39		45	50	65		58	65	74
	44	51	36	61		47	54	59		69	69	70
	35	62	45	55		41	63	48		49	59	43
	67	66	61	67		64	57	57		42	62	
	52	67	52	77		43	59	54		55	42	
Upper-Lower	36	58	61			41	43	65		62	48	62
	36	63	83			40	32	38		71	58	60
	31	72	42			51	38	37		25	82	74
	40	51	65			64	44	22		56	64	66
	53	62	56			61	41	57		47	52	51
	78	79				60	63	26		76	79	47
	57	53				71	30	68		70	81	42
	64	63				57	49			53	69	81
	45	53				30	60			66	30	51
	64	33				68	73			51	46	54
	63	47				63	65			56	74	63

APPENDIX I

SCHOOL SCORES IN PERCENTAGE TERMS

SPORTSMANSHIP INVENTORY

APPENDIX J

SCHOOL SCORES IN PERCENTAGE TERMS

SOCIETAL VALUE INVENTORY

School												
5		1		3		4		2				
Athletic Participants	35	47	77	41	63	45	54	36	34	52	52	35
	67	61	67	62	52	64	75	44	72	48	23	36
	60	83	57	66	49	63	71	50	53	52	35	36
	73	42	57	67	54	58	56	60	66	42	28	31
	30	65	43	59	39	63	58	70	36	65	64	
	50	56	49	63	61		64	53	40	65	53	
	42		58	60	55		31	68	48	55	49	
	28		36	83	67		51	53	58	44	47	
	26		53	79	77		63	79	61	58	63	
	60		68	40	52		50	62	48	63	31	
	65		76	53	52		52	51	63	67	40	
	51		85	78	57		61	72	60	53	59	
	33		57		64		45		45	67	44	
Spectators	64	37	74	40	62	57	57	57	46	55	30	
	43	22	72	51	31	49	59	30	51	59	49	
	54	57	70		49	35	50	68	60	38		
	20	26	56		53	43	79	63	70	56		
	44	68	50		54	32	64		69	56		
	50		40		63	38	48		76	61		
	60		90		42	44	50		72	29		
	59		75		38	41	46		41	72		
	60		34		47	63	46		44	38		
	73		50		45		64		46	88		
	65		54		65		61		48	45		
	65		63		59		60		42	47		
	38		41		48		71		49	41		
Nonspectators	69	42	50		74	51	47	50	64	74		
	59	81	44		31	59	76	27	45	63		
	62	51	39		34	34	70	41	77	63		
	42	54	51		51	39	53	62	66	61		
	42		59		42	57	66	71	46	47		
	62		43		54	69	51	58	75			
	60		70		49	65	56	47	58			
	74				42	62	48	58	58			
	66				55	71		69	38			
	51				70	25		58	58			
	47				46	56		82	45			

APPENDIX K

VALIDITY COEFFICIENT
SPORTSMANSHIP VALUE INVENTORY*

Pupil	Student Test Score - Part One x	Teacher Rating Score y
1	30	33
2	23	33
3	38	25
4	40	58
5	48	75
6	55	75
7	38	58
8	40	58
9	35	50
10	36	50
11	60	67
12	58	25
13	40	42
14	23	36
15	45	58
16	34	58
17	38	50
18	55	58
19	53	67
20	58	67
21	31	33
22	53	50
23	35	58
24	32	50
25	18	8
26	30	33
27	48	72
28	45	52
29	45	73
30	46	58
$\Sigma = 1230$		$\Sigma = 1530$
$\bar{x} = 41$		$\bar{y} = 51$

*Ten percent sample of student test population taking the sportsmanship value inventory, $r = .63$.

APPENDIX L

VALIDITY COEFFICIENT

SOCIETAL VALUE INVENTORY*

Pupil	Student Test Score <u>x</u>	Teacher Rating Score <u>y</u>
1	43	33
2	42	39
3	53	33
4	51	39
5	56	82
6	57	42
7	31	76
8	61	74
9	46	76
10	67	57
11	64	48
12	36	83
13	42	44
14	61	69
15	36	45
16	71	91
17	28	52
18	60	48
19	74	73
20	59	80
21	55	60
22	63	40
23	48	38
24	60	72
25	70	78
26	55	60
27	85	66
28	48	58
29	76	81
30	38	45
31	57	64
32	67	74
	<u>$\Sigma = 1650$</u>	<u>$\Sigma = 1800$</u>
	$\bar{x} = 55$	$\bar{y} = 60$

*Ten percent sample of student test population taking the societal value inventory, $r = .29$.

APPENDIX M

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT

SPORTSMANSHIP INVENTORY*

Pupil	Student Score - Part One <u>x</u>	Student Score - Part Two <u>y</u>
1	40	37
2	45	55
3	55	55
4	40	35
5	40	40
6	65	60
7	55	63
8	45	35
9	20	25
10	40	50
11	30	39
12	45	30
13	50	60
14	60	55
15	40	26
16	55	50
17	33	37
18	35	30
19	20	15
20	50	45
21	45	45
22	25	35
23	35	55
24	35	38
25	35	43
26	45	25
27	40	65
28	55	50
29	40	37
30	42	40
	$\Sigma = 1260$	$\Sigma = 1275$
	$\bar{x} = 42.0$	$\bar{y} = 42.5$

*Ten percent sample of student test population taking the sportsmanship value inventory, $r = .79$.

APPENDIX N

COLLECTIVE PAIRS OF TEST SCORES IN PERCENTAGE

TERMS--ATHLETIC PARTICIPANTS*

Student	Sportsman- ship Inventory	Societal Value Inventory	Student	Sportsman- ship Inventory	Societal Value Inventory	Student	Sportsman- ship Inventory	Societal Value Inventory
1	70	79	39	30	53	76	50	67
2	57	60	40	50	63	77	45	52
3	45	63	41	35	53	78	37	23
4	68	59	42	55	79	79	58	35
5	53	67	43	38	62	80	40	28
6	38	66	44	25	51	81	42	64
7	38	62	45	40	72	82	50	53
8	75	78	46	28	64	83	69	49
9	30	53	47	30	31	84	40	47
10	38	40	48	30	31	85	40	63
11	73	41	49	38	51	86	35	31
12	53	57	50	40	63	87	63	40
13	80	85	51	43	50	88	60	59
14	43	76	52	10	70	89	30	44
15	28	68	53	68	54	90	18	35
16	43	53	54	44	75	91	61	65
17	55	36	55	58	71	92	23	55
18	38	58	56	40	33	93	23	44
19	61	49	57	18	47	94	83	58
20	30	43	58	53	61	95	68	63
21	26	57	59	33	83	96	38	67
22	53	57	60	35	42	97	60	53
23	34	67	61	40	65	98	55	34
24	55	77	62	18	56	99	28	72
25	35	64	63	32	30	100	81	53
26	45	45	64	43	50	101	48	66
27	65	64	65	48	42	102	59	36
28	40	63	66	45	28	103	68	40
29	34	58	67	35	26	104	60	48
30	38	63	68	78	60	105	40	58
31	43	57	69	45	65	106	50	61
32	33	39	70	35	51	107	25	48
33	65	55	71	30	35	108	45	63
34	44	67	72	85	67	109	38	60
35	58	77	73	53	60	110	75	45
36	35	52	74	31	73	111	38	52
37	25	52	75	33	31	112	63	48
38	60	63				113	46	52
						114	23	42

*Used to obtain the correlation coefficient of the two test scores of students in the athletic participant group, $r = .20$.

COLLECTIVE PAIRS OF TEST SCORES IN PERCENTAGE

TERMS--SPECTATORS*

Student	Sportsman- ship Inventory	Societal Value Inventory	Student	Sportsman- ship Inventory	Societal Value Inventory	Student	Sportsman- ship Inventory	Societal Value Inventory
1	38	43	30	65	72	59	58	50
2	36	44	31	63	70	60	48	60
3	53	41	32	50	56	61	48	59
4	24	63	33	53	50	62	33	30
5	39	54	34	78	40	63	53	49
6	39	63	35	71	90	64	35	38
7	38	42	36	35	41	65	43	56
8	18	38	37	48	40	66	49	56
9	50	47	38	38	51	67	45	61
10	40	45	39	43	75	68	35	29
11	43	57	40	23	34	69	83	72
12	40	49	41	43	50	70	35	38
13	43	35	42	45	54	71	70	88
14	33	31	43	48	63	72	17	45
15	23	49	44	68	60	73	33	41
16	58	63	45	58	73	74	48	46
17	43	64	46	55	65	75	53	51
18	48	61	47	83	65	76	38	60
19	60	60	48	30	38	77	48	70
20	50	71	49	38	37	78	70	69
21	30	57	50	18	22	79	63	76
22	88	68	51	48	57	80	48	72
23	45	63	52	28	26	81	58	41
24	33	57	53	65	68	82	43	44
25	38	59	54	33	64	83	58	46
26	35	50	55	25	43	84	30	48
27	30	46	56	45	54	85	30	55
28	35	46	57	28	20	86	28	59
29	48	74	58	55	44			

*Used to obtain the correlation coefficient of the two test scores of students in the spectator group, $r = .57$.

COLLECTIVE PAIRS OF TEST SCORES IN PERCENTAGE

TERMS--NONSPECTATORS*

Student	Sportsman- ship Inventory	Societal Value Inventory	Student	Sportsman- ship Inventory	Societal Value Inventory	Student	Sportsman- ship Inventory	Societal Value Inventory
1	48	62	27	58	45	53	43	56
2	60	70	28	51	74	54	55	47
3	63	74	29	60	67	55	73	76
4	78	66	30	60	45	56	58	70
5	63	51	31	33	66	57	68	51
6	55	47	32	50	58	58	40	56
7	38	42	33	64	82	59	54	48
8	73	81	34	28	64	60	40	42
9	60	51	35	46	52	61	43	54
10	43	46	36	33	79	62	43	49
11	33	54	37	50	81	63	25	42
12	43	69	38	38	69	64	48	55
13	58	59	39	5	30	65	70	70
14	50	62	40	35	46	66	84	46
15	43	42	41	20	74	67	47	51
16	60	42	42	45	41	68	82	59
17	36	63	43	75	62	69	42	74
18	20	63	44	60	71	70	48	31
19	63	61	45	55	58	71	30	34
20	50	47	46	20	47	72	61	51
21	56	46	47	50	58	73	60	50
22	60	75	48	38	69	74	58	44
23	65	58	49	55	50	75	33	39
24	30	58	50	53	62	76	60	51
25	38	38	51	60	71	77	67	89
26	73	58	52	28	25	78	33	43
						79	65	70

*Used to obtain the correlation coefficient of the two test scores of students in the nonspectator group, $r = .26$.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Administration of High School Athletics. Washington, D.C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1962.
- Anastasi, Anne. Psychological Testing. New York: Macmillan Company, 1961.
- Bell, Robert. The Sociology of Education: A Source Book. Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press, Inc., 1962.
- Berkowitz, Leonard. The Development of Motives and Values in the Child. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1964.
- Berry, Elmer. The Philosophy of Athletics. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1927.
- Best, John W. Research in Education. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959.
- Bloom, Benjamin. Stability and Change in Human Characteristics. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964.
- Bovyer, George. "Children's Concepts of Sportsmanship in the Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Grades." Research Quarterly, XXXIV (October, 1963).
- Bowen, Wilbur, and Mitchell, Elmer. The Theory of Organized Play. New York: A. S. Barnes and Company, 1930.
- Bower, William C. Moral and Spiritual Values in Education. Lexington: University of Kentucky Press, 1952.
- Buros, Oscar K., ed. The Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, N.J.: Gryphon Press, 1953.
- Calisch, Richard. "The Sportsmanship Myth." The Physical Educator, X (March, 1953).
- _____. "Spectator Problems on Secondary School Athletics." Research Quarterly, XXV (October, 1954).
- "Character Values in Sports and Games." Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XXXI (November, 1960).

- Clark, L. W. "Athletics and Sportsmanship: Policies and Techniques." Education, LX (April, 1940).
- Cole, William. Sociology in Educational Practice. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1952.
- Coleman, James. Adolescent Society. New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1961.
- _____. Adolescents and the Schools. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1965.
- Cronbach, Lee J. Educational Psychology. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., 1954.
- Davis, O. Jennings, Jr. "Educating for Sportsmanship." Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, XXVI (September, 1955).
- Erdman, B. "Plea for Sportsmanship." Athletic Journal, XXX (October, 1949).
- Forsythe, Charles. Administration of High School Athletics. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962.
- Freund, John. Modern Elementary Statistics. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960.
- Gage, N. L., ed. Handbook of Research on Teaching. Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1963.
- George, Jack, and Lehmann, Harry. School Athletic Administration. New York: Harper and Row, 1966.
- Getzels, Jacob W. "The Acquisition of Values in School and Society." The High School in a New Era. Edited by F. S. Chase and Harold H. Anderson. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958.
- Ginzberg, Eli. Values and Ideals of American Youth. New York: Columbia University Press, 1961.
- Gottlieb, David, and Brookover, Wilbur. A Sociology of Education. New York: American Book Company, 1964.
- Hartshorne, H., and May, M. Studies in the Nature of Character. New York: Macmillan Company, 1928.
- Havighurst, Robert. "What Research Says About Developing Moral Character." National Education Association Journal, LI (January, 1962).

- _____ and Neugarten, Bernice. Society and Education. Boston, Mass.: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1967.
- _____ and Peck, Robert. The Psychology of Character Development. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1960.
- _____ and Taba, Hilda. Adolescent Character and Personality. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1949.
- Hollingshead, August. Elmtown's Youth. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1949.
- Jackson, C. O. "Why Competitive Athletics." Scholastic Coach, XXIX (May, 1960).
- Jacob, Philip L. Changing Values in College. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957.
- Katz, Daniel, and Festinger, Leon, eds. Research Methods in the Behavioral Sciences. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Link, Henry. The Rediscovery of Morals. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1947.
- McAfee, Robert A. "Sportsmanship Attitudes of Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth Grade Boys." Research Quarterly, XXVI (March, 1955).
- Mercer, Blaine E., and Carr, Edwin R. Education and the Social Order. New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1957.
- Morris, Charles. Varieties of Human Values. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958.
- Morris, Verns. "A Code of Ethics for High School Coaches." Scholastic Coach, XXVII (October, 1957).
- Mussen, Paul H., ed. Handbook of Research Methods in Child Development. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1960.
- Plutte, W. "Emphasizing Sportsmanship in Sports." Athletic Journal, XXXVIII (November, 1957).
- Pressey, Sidney, and Associates. Psychology in Education. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959.

- Raths, James. "A Strategy for Developing Values." Educational Leadership, XXI (May, 1964).
- Raths, Louis, et al. Values and Teaching. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1966.
- Rutzick, Max. Working Paper Number 15: Methodology and Scores of Socioeconomic Status. Washington, D.C.: Bureau of the Census, 1965.
- Shepard, George E., and Jamerson, Richard E. Interscholastic Athletics. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953.
- "Sportsmanship in Athletics and the School Board." American School Board Journal, CXIII (May, 1949).
- Thorndike, Edward L. The Psychology of Wants, Interests, and Attitudes. New York: Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1935.
- Values in Sports. Washington, D.C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, 1962.
- Warner, William L. Democracy in Jonesville. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1964.
- Winer, B. J. Statistical Principles in Experimental Design. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1962.
- Zuckerman, M. "Program for Good Sportsmanship." School Executive, LXXI (December, 1951).

Unpublished Materials

- Campbell, Doris. "Differences of Values Among College Students at Different Class Levels." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Florida, 1962.
- Crawford, Melvin. "Critical Incidents in Intercollegiate Athletics and Derived Standards of Professional Ethics." Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Texas, 1957.
- Flory, Clarence. "Sportsmanship Attitudes of College Students Towards Situations in Competitive Athletics." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Texas, 1958.

- Harvey, Robert. "An Evaluation of the Practices of Selected Ethically Questionable Actions by College Athletic Coaches." Unpublished P.E.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1963.
- Haskins, Mary Jane, and Hartman, Betty. "A Problem-Solving Test of Sportsmanship." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1959.
- Kehr, Geneva. "An Analysis of Sportsmanship Responses of Groups of Boys Classified as Participants and Non-Participants in Organized Baseball." Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, New York University, 1959.
- Kistler, Joy. "What Do We Know About the Attitudes Which People Hold Regarding Behavior in Specific Situations Occurring in Sports?" Unpublished Pilot Study, Louisiana State University, 1954.
- Laughter, Robert. "Socio-Psychological Aspects of the Development of Athletic Practices and Sports Ethics." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1963.
- Seymour, Emery, et al. "Relationship Between Participation in Competitive Athletics and the Development of Moral Character." Unpublished Study, Springfield College, 1964.
- Slusher, Howard. "The Overt and Covert Responses of Football Players to a Test of Sportsmanship." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio State University, 1962.
- Smith, Edward. "An Experimental Study of the Problems and Attitudes of High School Athletics." Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, University of Colorado, 1958.

